

GAZETTEER

OF THE

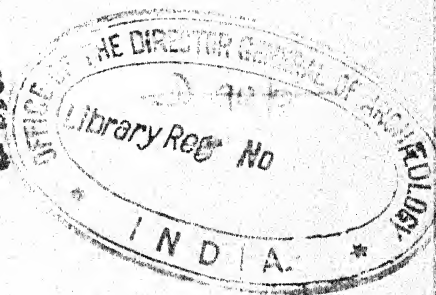
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GUJRANWALA DISTRICT.

REVISED EDITION

1893—94.

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PREFACE TO FIRST EDITION.

The period fixed by the Punjab Government for the compilation of the *Gazetteer* of the Province being limited to twelve months, the Editor has not been able to prepare any original matter for the present work ; and his duties have been confined to throwing the already existing material into shape, supplementing it as far as possible by contributions obtained from district officers, passing the draft through the press, circulating it for revision, altering it in accordance with the corrections and suggestions of revising officers, and printing and issuing the final edition.

The material available in print for the *Gazetteer* of this district consisted of the Settlement Reports, and a draft *Gazetteer*, compiled between 1870 and 1874 by Mr. F. Cunningham, Barrister-at-Law. Notes on certain points have been supplied by district officers ; while the report on the Census of 1881 has been utilised. Of the present volume, Section A. of Chap. V (General Administration), and the whole of Chap. VI (Towns), have been for the most part supplied by the Deputy Commissioner ; and Section A of Chap. III (Statistics of Population) has been taken from the Census Report. But with these exceptions, the great mass of the text has been taken almost, if not quite, verbally from Mr. Cunningham's compilation already referred to, which again was largely based upon Major Nisbet's Settlement Report of the district.

The report in question was written in 1868, and modelled on the meagre lines of the old settlement reports, affords very inadequate material for an account of the district. No better or fuller material, however, was either available or procurable within the time allowed. But when the district again comes under settlement, a second and more complete edition of this *Gazetteer* will be prepared ; and meanwhile the present edition will serve the useful purpose of collecting and publishing in a systematic form, information which had before been scattered, and in part unpublished.

The draft edition of this *Gazetteer* has been revised by Major and Messrs. Bulman and Trafford. The Deputy Commissioner responsible for the spelling of vernacular names, which has been throughout by him in accordance with the prescribed system of orthography. The final edition, though completely compiled by the Editor, has been passed through the press by Mr. Stack.

PREFACE TO SECOND EDITION.

The present edition of the *Gazetteer* has been completed in the latter part of 1894-95 on the conclusion of settlement operations. It is based largely on the Assessment Reports of the various tahsils and on the Final Settlement Report for the district. Excepting small portions of Chapters II, III and VI this edition has been entirely re-written, as it was found that owing to the opening up of the district by the Chenáb Canal, the alteration of boundaries, the establishment of new tahsils, all of which have occurred since the first edition was published, the information given in the latter was both meagre and obsolete. In the present edition an attempt has been made to bring the facts up to date and to include the most recent statistics. A small scale map has also been added which shows the principal towns and villages, main lines of communication, existing boundaries of tahsils, assessment circles, &c., the lines of the Chenáb Canal and its branches, and the alignment of the Wazirabad-Lyallpur railway now under construction. The account of the agricultural produce of the district in Chapter IV has been copied from the *Gazetteer* of the adjoining district of Lahore. For the valuable notes on the origin and working of the Chenáb Canal, and of the progress of the Chenáb Canal colonisation scheme, I am indebted to the kindness of Mr. Percy Preston, Superintending Engineer, and of Lieutenant Popham, Colonisation Officer, respectively. Mr. H. D. Watson, Assistant Commissioner, assisted me throughout in compiling the information and recasting the text, and but for his aid the work would not have made such speedy progress.

GUJWANWALA :
 }
 10th March 1895. }

M. F. O'DWYER,

Officiating Deputy Commissioner.

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Table No. I,—showing LEADING STATISTICS.

1	2	3	4	5
DETAILS.	District.	<i>Detail of Tahsils.</i>		
		Gujrán-wála.	Wazírabad.	Háfízabad.
Total square miles (1893)	2,906	756	451	1,699
Cultivated square miles (1893)	1,161	371	255	535
Unculturable square miles (1893)	1,314	228	123	963
Irrigated square miles (1893)	761	236	188	337
Average square miles under crops (1888-89 to 1892-93)	1,078	423	257	398
Annual rainfall in inches (1866-67 to 1892-93) ...	25·3	25·3	23·6	19·7
Number of inhabited towns and villages (1891) ...	1,241	455	262	524
Total population (1891)	690,169	269,166	183,606	237,397
Rural population (1891)	62,109	35,469	26,640	...
Urban population (1891)	628,060	233,697	156,966	237,397
Total population per square mile (1891)	237	356	407	140
Rural population per square mile (1891)	215	309	351	140
Hindús (1891)	166,278	74,369	41,097	50,812
Káshís (1891)	45,316	24,523	6,173	14,620
Sikhs (1891)	727	631	96	...
Muslimans (1891)	475,494	168,327	135,254	171,913
Average annual land revenue (1888-89 to 1892-93)*...	667,550
Average annual gross revenue (1888-89 to 1892-93)†...	928,730

* Fixed, fluctuating, and miscellaneous.
 † Land, Tribute, Local Rates, Excise, and Stamps.

ERRATA.

- Page 3, line 5 from top, for "uplands utar" read "uplands or utar."
- " 4 " 17 " bottom " "charkhara Persian wheel" read "charkha a Persian wheel."
- " 5 " 7 " " " " "extremly" read "extremely."
- " 10 " 3rd, entry on margin, for "the Nagh" read "the Vagh."
- " 11, line 1 from top, for "Nagh" read "Vagh."
- " 26 " 2 " bottom, after strong, for comma insert fullstop.
- " 46 " 6 " top, for "1882-99" read "1888-89."
- " 77 " 2 " below statement, for "6,267" read "4186."
- " 103 " 12 " bottom " "Magha" " "Maghar."
- " 106 " 3 " " " "years" " "years."
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- " 114 " 5 in statement " "Wanke" " "Wanike."
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CHAPTER I.

THE DISTRICT.

SECTION A.—DESCRIPTIVE.

The Gujranwála district is the southernmost of the six districts in the Ráwalpindi Division, to which it was transferred in 1885 from the Lahore Division, and lies between north latitude $31^{\circ}32'$ and $32^{\circ}33'$ and east longitude $73^{\circ}12'$ and $74^{\circ}28'$.

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

General description.

Its shape is, roughly speaking, that of a parallelogram. It occupies the upper centre of the Rechna Doáb, being intermediate in natural features, fertility and conditions of agriculture between the highly favoured submontane district of Siálkot on the north-east and the barren wastes of Jhang and Montgomery on the south-west. Its north-west boundary, a length of nearly 80 miles, fronts the Chenáb, which divides it from Gujrat and Shahpur, while on the south-east it gradually slopes into the valley of the Deg, and is bounded by the Lahore district.

With the exception of the Chenáb lowlands along the north-west boundary sloping towards the river and the Deg valley on the south-east, the rest of the district consists of an alluvial plain, slightly elevated, and of almost unbroken evenness, declining imperceptibly towards the south-west.

The mean length is 45 and the mean width 65 miles.

The district is fourteenth in order of area and thirteenth in order of population among the 31 districts of the Province, comprising 2.73 per cent. of the total area, 3.30 per cent. of the total population and 2.9 per cent. of the urban population.

It contains two towns with a population exceeding 10,000, viz., Gujranwála, the head-quarters, which lies on the Grand Trunk Road and North-Western Railway, 39 miles north of Lahore, and Wazirabad, which is situated on the banks of the Chenáb, where the North-Western Railway crosses the river at a distance of 60 miles from Lahore.

The boundaries of the district have varied considerably at different times. At annexation the district was formed of four tahsils :—Gujranwála, Rámnagar, Háfizabad and Sheikhpura, the head-quarters being first fixed in the Sheikhpura Fort from which they were transferred in 1851 to Gujranwála. At the close of the regular settlement in 1855 the district was reconstructed into three tahsils, all of Gujranwála and part of Rámnagar going to form the two tahsils of Gujranwála and

Changes of boundaries.

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

Changes of boundaries.

Wazirabad ; the south portion of Sheikhpura was at the same time attached to the Sharakpur tahsil in Lahore, while the new Hafizabad tahsil was reconstituted from the remaining portion of Sheikhpura, the western villages of Ramnagar and the entire old Hafizabad tahsil.

No further change of importance occurred till 1884, when 13 raks on the south-west with an area of 89,480 acres, were transferred from Jhang to round off the boundary.

Several transfers and retransfers of estates to and from the Gujrat and Shahpur districts have taken place at various times owing to river action. The most sweeping alteration has however been carried out in 1893,* when in connection with the scheme for the colonisation of the Government waste on the Chenab Canal, the boundary with Jhang and Montgomery was re-adjusted by the transfer of 13 of the new Government estates from Hafizabad to Jhang, while 9 Government estates from Jhang, 6 from Montgomery and an area of 399 acres from Lahore have been included in this district.

In the same connection the Hafizabad tahsil which was of unwieldy size, embracing three-fifths of the total area, and was rapidly developing in population and cultivation by the extension of canal irrigation, was broken up into two; the northern part being retained as the Hafizabad tahsil, while the southern part embracing 110 proprietary estates and all the Government waste allotted to settlers has been formed into a new tahsil with head-quarters at Khangah Dogran.

The new arrangements have only come into operation from 1st October 1893, and all the statistics, settlement, census, annual returns, &c., which are the basis of the *Gazetteer*, had been prepared prior to that date according to the old division into three tahsils. It is impossible to now work out the figures for Hafizabad and Khangah Dogran separately in any but the most important cases.

Town.	North latitude.	East longitude.	Feet above sea level.
Gujranwala	32° 10'	74° 14'	800*
Wazirabad	32° 27'	74° 10'	820*
Hafizabad	32° 4'	73° 43'	800*

* Approximate.

The latitude, longitude and elevation of the sadr and tahsil head-quarters are shown in the margin.

Physical features and natural divisions.

The district occupies the most of the Doab from Sialkot to Jhang, and within its limits the country passes through the various gradations by which the rich soil of the favoured submontane region merges into a waterless, almost rainless, and therefore sterile plain, unculturable save by canal irrigation which is now being supplied.

It naturally falls into two main divisions—

- (1). The lowland or Hithár, *i.e.*, alluvial tract along the Chenáb on the north-west and the valley of the Deg in the extreme south-east.
- (2). The uplands Utar embracing the rest of the district.

Chapter I. A.

Descriptive.

Physical features
and natural divisions.

The Deg which enters the district from Siálkot, after a winding course of about 12 miles through the south-east of the Gujranwála tahsíl, passes into Lahore. Some 19 villages in Gujranwála are advantaged by its periodic floods, or irrigated from it by means of *jhallárs*, but no attempts have as yet been made in this district as in Siálkot to utilise it on a large scale for irrigation by means of dams and *bands*. The Deg floods are most fertilising, leaving a deposit of rich mud, and the rice grown in this tract is famous for its outturn and quality. In this district, however, the inundations are becoming less year by year, as the practice of tapping the stream by Siálkot villages higher up for irrigation purposes is rapidly growing. There is, however, always a permanent supply from July to September, which is generally sufficient to mature the rice crop. In high flood the overflow extends to two miles on either bank, and as the water subsides irrigation is effected by means of *jhallárs*.

After the rains, the volume of the stream is much reduced and in the cold weather it would often dry up altogether but for the springs in its bed.

There are 179 estates, *viz.*, 67 in Wazírabad and 112 in Háfizabad or one-seventh of the whole number, situated in the lowlands adjoining the river and more or less affected by its action. The area returned as *sailába* or inundated in 1893-94 is 38,109 acres or 4·5 per cent. of the total cultivation. The Chenáb has been accurately and happily described in para. 11 of the Jhang Settlement Report in the following words:—

The Chenáb.

“The Chenáb is a broad shallow stream, with a sluggish channel and a licentious course. Its deposits are sandy, but its floods are extensive, and owing to the loose texture of the soil on its banks, the moisture percolates far inland.”

The description applies with equal truth to the course and action of the river in this district. The shiftings in the channel, present course of the stream, its influence on the villages affected by it, and the quality of the *sailába* lands have been described at length in the Assessment Reports of Wazírabad and Háfizabad. In the Wazírabad Tahsíl the set of the river is towards the north or Gujrát bank; *sailába* lands on this side, which formerly received regular inundation, are now flooded only when the river rises very high, and wells have been sunk in many villages to supplement the deficient inundations. The action of the weir across the river at Khánke will tend probably to concentrate the river after it passes through the weir into a narrower but deeper channel discharging itself on the Gujranwála side. In its course through the Háfizabad tahsíl the Chenáb has several alternative channels, and deserts one for the other in

Chapter I, A.
—
Descriptive.
The Chenáb.

the most irregular and arbitrary manner. Its general tendency is however towards the north-west or Gujrát-Shahpur bank, and though owing to the distance of the high bank from the river and the action of *nalás* or arms of the river—the chief of which are the Palkhu in Wazírabad, the Sukhnain and Phát in Háfizabad—the floods when high penetrate 4 or 5 miles inland; they are uncertain and often destructive. It has also to be borne in mind that the canal will, year by year, take away an increasing volume of water from the river and will in time absorb the entire cold weather and an appreciable proportion of the hot weather supply. The effect of this on the *sailába* lands below the weir cannot fail to be unfavourable. The *sailába* land of both Wazírabad and Háfizabad is generally rather inferior. The Chenáb deposits rarely contain any fertilising mud. New alluvial land therefore forms slowly, and is not fit for cultivation for many years. Wheat of inferior quality, pease and linseed in the rabi, *bájra* or maize in the kharif are the crops chiefly grown, and the outturn is generally poor.

Natural divisions
of the uplands.

The circumstances of the lowland villages affected by the Deg and the Chenáb are fairly uniform, but in the uplands we find a well marked gradation, not only in the quality of the soil and the conditions of agriculture, but in the habits of the people, as we go down the Doáb.

The Charkhari of
Gujránwála and
Wazírabad.

Along the east border in the Gujránwála and Wazírabad tahsils adjoining Siálkot, is a rich and highly developed tract, from 36 to 40 miles in length and 12 to 16 in breadth, with a dense and industrious population but of rather poor physique. Water is accessible, the level being 20 or 30 feet from the surface. Cultivation which has almost reached the limit is protected almost entirely by wells, aided by a rainfall of over 20 inches, and is therefore fairly secure even in bad seasons. This is known for assessment purposes as the Charkhari circle (from *charkhara*, Persian-wheel) and embraces nearly half the cultivated area of these two tahsils. It is intersected by the North-Western Railway, and contains the chief town of the district Gujránwála and most of the largest villages.

The Bángar of
Gujránwála, Wazír-
abad and Háfizabad.

Proceeding further down the Doáb, the soil becomes lighter and is in parts impregnated with *kallar*, the rainfall less, and the water level deeper but not so inaccessible as to prevent wells being numerous and worked at a profit. This intermediate tract, which runs through all tahsils except Khángah Dográn, is known as the Bángar (a general term for uplands). The water level is 25 to 45 feet; agriculture is dependent mainly on wells, though not so exclusively as in the Charkhari; there is still a considerable margin for expansion, and the lighter texture of the soil enables unirrigated crops to be more freely grown. It has reached a fairly high pitch of development, and the inhabitants, system of cultivation, &c., are similar to the Charkhari.

Between this tract and the Bár proper, lies a belt of land along the west of Gujránwála and the east of Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn, which is known as the Adjoining Bár, and as regards soil and agricultural conditions as in situation, is intermedate between the Bángar and the Bár. Population is sparse, the villages become rarer, have large areas and great capacity for expansion. The rainfall is slight, about 15 inches, and rather uncertain, the water level—40 to 55 feet—is so deep that wells can only be sunk and maintained at a great expense of capital, so that less than half of the cultivation is commanded by wells, but the soil, an excellent loam, is so cool and retentive of moisture that unirrigated crops can be grown successfully with even a slight rainfall. This tract is in many respects the most prosperous in the district. The population, largely Sikhs, have more spirit and a finer physique than elsewhere. They are good agriculturists though rather impatient of the wearisome drudgery of well cultivation, and great numbers of them take service in the army and the police.

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

Adjoining Bár of Gujránwála, Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn.

West of this tract we come to the Bár proper lying on the south-west of the district, containing over one-third of the total area, of which over half is the property of Government, and embracing a large part of the Háfizabad and nearly all of the new Khángah Dográn tahsil. In its natural condition the Bár is a level prairie, thickly dotted over with a stunted undergrowth of bush jungle consisting of the *jand* (*Prosopii spicigera*), *karil* (*Capparis aphylla*) *wan* or *pilu* (*Salvadora oleoides*) and *ber* (*Zizyphus jujuba*). The rainfall is so slight, 10 to 12 inches, and well irrigation so expensive, the water level ranging from 40 to 75 feet, that agriculture without canal irrigation is most precarious. Till recently therefore the tract was mainly pastoral. The inhabitants who are for the most part descendants of the nomad tribes who have roamed at will over this tract with their cattle and families for centuries, have only settled down to agriculture within the last generation or two, and have not yet abandoned their predatory traditions.

The Bár of Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn.

At the regular settlement, to induce them to settle on the soil which was then "No Man's Land" they were allowed to define their own boundaries. Hence the estates are of enormous size, in several cases exceeding 8,000 acres. Of this if seasons were favourable they cultivated sufficient to provide themselves with food till the next harvest, but they looked chiefly to their cattle, of which they still possess enormous herds, and the spontaneous produce of the waste for their livelihood.

The soil is on the whole an extremely fertile loam needing only favourable rains or sufficient irrigation to produce excellent crops. The grazing both in the village areas and the Government waste is luxuriant and abundant if rains are favourable, and the income from sales of *ghi*, wool, firewood, skins, &c., in this tract and the Adjoining Bár till recently amounted to about 3 lakhs per annum. The great bar to the extension of cultivation

Chapter I. A.

Descriptive.

The Bár of Háfiz-
abad and Khángah
Dográn.

in this tract, *viz.*, the deficient rainfall and the prohibitive cost of sinking and maintaining wells has now been removed by the recent introduction of canal irrigation which has revolutionised agriculture, totally changed the face of the country in the Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn tahsils, especially in the Bár tract, and materially affected the character of the people.

From the foregoing description it will be seen that there are five great natural divisions based on physical characteristics, differences of soil, rainfall, means of irrigation and agriculture, into which the district may be mapped out:—

- (1). The alluvial lowlands of the Chenáb forming the north and north-west boundary of Wazirabad and Háfizabad.
- (2). The Charkhari or rich, highly developed, fully irrigated, and secure tract on the east side of the district adjoining Siáلكot in Gujránwála and Wazirabad intersected by the Grand Trunk Road and North-Western Railway. The small circle of villages on the south-east of the tahsil advantaged by the Deg have been merged in the Charkhari.
- (3). The less favoured but fairly secure belt of land farther west, embracing part of the Gujránwála, Wazirabad and Háfizabad tahsils, known as the Bángar, in which the soil is light and rather inferior, but water is fairly accessible, wells can be worked with advantage and most of the cultivation is dependent on them, though it needs the aid of rain more than in the Charkhari.
- (4). The tract intermediate between the Bángar and the Bár, known as the Adjoining Bár in Gujránwála, Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn, in which the soil is excellent, but the rainfall slight, and the water level so deep that most of the cultivation is unirrigated.
- (5). The Bár tract on the extreme south-west in Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn, in which, owing to the small and uncertain rainfall, unirrigated crops can be raised only in favourable years, while the cost of sinking and working wells is almost prohibitive, so that the expansion of cultivation is dependent on the extension of canal irrigation.

These natural divisions have in the recent settlement been made the basis of the division of each tahsil into the following assessment circle:—

<i>Tahsil.</i>					
Gujránwála	Charkhari,	Bángar,	Adjoining Bár.
Wazirabad	Charkhari,	Bángar,	Chenáb.
Háfizabad	Bár,	Bángar,	Chenáb, Adjoining Bár.
Khángah Dográn	Bár,	Adjoining	Bár.

The opening of the Chenáb Canal in 1886-87, and its conversion from an inundation to a perennial canal which was carried out early in 1892, have already done much, and will do much more, in the way of making agriculture secure. The canal which takes out from the Chenáb by means of a weir across the river at Khánki in the Wazírabad tahsíl, 10 miles below Wazírabad, now irrigates 15 per cent. of the total cultivation. It commands some 20 villages on the west of the Wazírabad tahsíl in which it irrigates some 3,000 acres, and running transversely from north-east to south-west through Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn, it now irrigates about 200 settled villages in the Bángar, Bár and Adjoining Bár tracts, where owing, to the great depth of water and the uncertain rainfall, conditions were formerly most unfavourable to successful cultivation. Eventually when the Jhang Branch, which has already been begun, and the Gugera Branch, which has been projected, have been constructed, the whole of these two tahsils, except the alluvial villages of the Chenáb valley, and some 40 villages along the south-east boundary adjoining Gujránwála will be commanded, and as there are enormous areas of waste only waiting for canal water to be broken up--the area irrigated from the canal, which now comes to 150,000 acres, or nearly 18 per cent. of the whole, will, for many years to come, expand with great rapidity. Agriculture will, therefore, every year become more and more dependent on the canal, and lands at present unirrigated or attached to wells will become canal-irrigated.

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Descriptive.
Canal irrigation.

The effect of this movement generally, and especially its results as regards well lands have been discussed at length in the Háfizabad Assessment Report, and will be touched on in the Chapter on Assessments. It will be sufficient here to state that within the last few years the influence of the canal has revolutionised agriculture in Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn, and has materially affected the character of the people. These are, for the most part, descendants of the nomads or pastoral tribes of the Bár, who have only gradually settled down to agriculture within the last few generations, and still retain a strong leaning to their old predatory habits and a strong aversion to steady manual labour. The uncertainty of cultivation prior to the advent of the canal, and the profits to be made with little or no labour from grazing and breeding-cattle, in the vast uncultivated tracts included in the village areas and the Government waste, encouraged these hereditary tendencies. But the canal has even already worked a great change. By ensuring the success of the crops sown, and making cultivation easy and profitable, it has brought the zamíndárs to look rather on the land than on their cattle for their living. All over the tahsíl the waste land is being rapidly broken up, tenants are being imported from other districts to supply the local scarcity of labour, and within the last six years the cultivated area has increased from 258,000 to 340,000 acres.

Influence of canal extension on agriculture.

This does not include the progress made in bringing the

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Influence of canal
extension on agricul-
ture.

Prevailing soils.

have already been allotted in this district, and though the allotment was begun only in the cold weather of 1891-92, I understand that the area under cultivation last rabi amounts to nearly 100,000 acres.

As regards the composition of the soil generally, it may be said that stiff clay (*rohi*) is most common in the Charkhari circles, adjoining Siálkot, where a great many natural channels—the Aik,—Nandanwah, Khot, &c., bring down the drainage in the rains. The strong loam (*dosáhi*) is most common in the Adjoining Bár and Bár circles, and in the Wazírabad Charkhari and is the most workable and fertile soil growing all crops except rice. The lighter loams (*maira* and *tibba*) are common in the Bángar circles of all three tahsils, the soil of which is much inferior to that of the rest of the district; *kallar* is all pervading and its influence on the cultivation which, when affected by it is known as *kalrati* can be traced every where. It is very common in the Gujránwála Charkhari, the Wazírabad and Háfizabad Chenáb and Bángar circles. The soil of the Adjoining Bár and Bár circles being a sweet clay or a good loam has little *kallar*. With canal water, however, the most hopeless looking *kallar* produces excellent crops of rice, indeed it is more suited for this crop than sweeter soils. It is a question, however, whether continued irrigation to the extent that is required for rice will not eventually bring to the surface, the (*reh*) efflorescence, which is now dormant in the subsoil and thus render the *kalrati* land permanently unproductive. The water level in the canal-irrigated tract is at present so deep that there is no danger of water-logging for some years to come, but the subsoil drainage in the Háfizabad tahsíl is not good, and the results of canal irrigation, especially in the *kallar* lands should be carefully observed, so that any tendency to water-logging or bringing *reh* to the surface may be at once checked.

Drainage
and *nalás*. lines

The quality of the soil and the system of agriculture, is in many places largely influenced by the presence of *nalás*—natural depressions generally marking drainage lines, which form channels for flood water in the rains, and the *chhams*, ponds or marshes which are formed by the overflow of these *nalás*. The most important are shown in the district map and are as follows :—

The Khot.

The Khot enters the district from Siálkot at Pero Chak on the north-east of tahsil Gujránwála, flows south-west through Ferozwála close to Gujránwála city and south to Sansrah, forming large *chhams* or *jhils* at Butála Sharm Singh and Khiáli. Thence one branch finds its way south-east and empties itself into the great Miráliwála marsh six miles south of Gujránwála, while the rest loses itself for a time in the *kallar* plains around Eminabad. Further on it re-appears with a wider and deeper bed, carrying a large volume of water in the rains, flows south-west past Kámoke, and finally joins the

Deg in the Lahore district. It is only in flow in the summer rains, and occasionally in the winter months, when the rainfall is sudden and heavy.

The villages along the upper part of its course where the bed is nearly level with the surrounding country receive more damage than benefit from its floods, and its overflow also often causes serious injury to the lowlying lands where it enters the Lahore district. In the lower part of its course through this district several villages, Kánoke, Khot, Rája Bhola, Ghoma, Harpoke, Naulanwáli, &c., irrigate from it by means of *jhallárs*, and a great deal of rice is grown along its banks.

The Nandanwah *nala*, also known as the Narowána and Khilri in different parts of its course, is a continuation of the Aik *nala* (see Siáلكot Gazetteer) which enters the Wazirabad tahsíl at Aráyánwála in the north-east corner.

From this point it forms two branches, one of which, known as the Bacherá, passes into the Chenáb valley where it joins the Palkhu (see below); the other flows south-west across the Wazirabad Charkhari, and then passes into the Gujranwála Bángar. Near Nokhar on the Gujranwála-Háfizabad road, another offshoot branches off, catches the drainage from the surrounding *kallar*, and working its way through Dogránwála and Phamme Sarai, where it forms a very large marsh, passes into the Háfizabad tahsíl and runs due west through Kile and Kakkar Gill to the Mián Ali *chamb* in the heart of the Bár. This branch is said to have been a canal in olden times and to have supplied water to Mián Ali (Asrúr) and Sangla when they were flourishing cities. Traces of it are said by General Cunningham to have been found 20 miles south-west of Sangla in the Jhang district. The main branch runs almost due south from Nokhar through the Adjoining Bár of Gujranwála and Háfizabad, and finally loses itself in the great Mughal tank near Sheikhpura. Tradition says that this main branch was cut by the Emperor Jahángír from the Chenáb or the Aik to supply water to this tank, an artificial lake, 26 acres in area and 30 feet in depth, surrounding the shooting lodge in the *Harán Munára rakh*. In the upper half of its course through this district from Aráyánwála to Nokhar, the *nala* is well defined, brings down a great deal of drainage and flood water from the Siáلكot side in the rains, and forms several marshes or ponds along its course on the banks of which rice is grown in abundance. The villages from Aráyánwála to Jhandiala, where it crosses the Grand Trunk Road, are lowlying and often suffer from swamping of the standing crops if heavy rain falls when the crops are ripening, and the floods sometimes prevent the ground being sown in time. West of the Grand Trunk Road down to Nokhar, many villages irrigate largely from it by means of *jhallárs* and water-courses, and a good deal of the lowlying land here has been broken up and wells have been sunk in it to supplement the *nala* floods. From Nokhar onwards traces of the bed are found only at

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The Khot.

The Nandanwah.

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Descriptive.

The Palkhu.

intervals. In parts it has silted up to the level of the surrounding land, in places it has been cultivated.

The Palkhu, which is a perennial stream, also enters the district at the north-east corner of Wazirabad from Siálkot (see Siálkot Gazetteer), where its course is roughly parallel with the Aik. It flows through the Chenáb lowlands from Sohdra to Wazirabad near which it is joined by the Bachera, a branch of the Aik. Up to Wazirabad its inundations in the rains extend to a mile or so on either side, but have little fertilising value.

The combined streams formerly inundated the alluvial villages to a distance of eight miles below Wazirabad where they join the Chenáb at Ránike, a little above the headworks of the Chenáb Canal at Khánke, but the Grand Trunk Road and the protective works in connection with the Chenáb bridge at Wazirabad now bar their passage, and most of the flood water is diverted back to the river above Wazirabad. One result of this is that the lowlands above Wazirabad are submerged during the autumn, and kharif crops are rendered precarious, while the *sailába* lands below Wazirabad are cut off from Palkhu floods, and wells have been sunk to secure the cultivation. Another result is that Wazirabad has been rendered more unhealthy than before as the *nala* which formerly flowed in a perennial stream under the town, kept the wells sweet and flushed the city sewage, has now been changed into a stagnant pool which is said to contaminate the drinking wells in its vicinity and to taint the atmosphere.

The Sukhnain.

The Sukhnain is a branch of the Chenáb, which, as its name implies, was formerly a dry channel. It leaves the river close to Rámnagar and receives the surplus water from the escape channel of the Chenáb Canal; it is now in flow all the year round. After a course of 20 miles, through some 20 riverain villages of Wazirabad and Háfizabad, it rejoins the Chenáb at Jágo. The action of this arm of the river, though often injurious to the kharif crops, is on the whole beneficial, as the silt is fertilising and the villages along its banks are among the best in the Chenáb valley.

The Nágh.

The Vagh or Lund has its source in the *kallar* drainage around Gajar Gola in the Wazirabad tahsil, enters Háfizabad at Kot Panáh in the Bángar, and after a very irregular course of about 20 miles during which it forms the two great *jháls* or marshes of Rámke and Kauló Tárar, it passes into the Chenáb valley at Muzaffar Nau. Thence it pursues a winding course, more or less parallel with the river, for another 20 miles till it finally joins the Chenáb at Dinga. It has a fairly deep channel not unlike the Deg, and though it carries water nearly all the year the supply is entirely dependant upon rain. Its overflow is beneficial to the surrounding land which is chiefly a stiff clay growing good crops of rice and wheat and gram. About 25

The Rohi is an overflow from the Nagh which it leaves near Jalálpur in the Háfizabad tahsil, and after a course of about 20 miles through the Bángar and Chenáb circles it joins the river below Pindi Bhattián. It is in flow only during the rains and often damages the kharif. There is no *jhállár* irrigation from it.

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Descriptive.
The Rohi.

The *nala* known as Nikayán or Degwála is a cut from the Deg made by Ráni Nikayán, wife of Ranjít Singh, to irrigate her *jágír* around Sheikhpura. It leaves the Deg at Pindi Rattan Singh in the Lahore district, enters this district at Kiámpur on the south-east, passes through Mariála, Kila Amir Singh, Shoikhupura, Aráyánwála, Jiwanpura Khurd, enters the Bár circle at Jiwanpura Kalán, thence on through Kháriánwála, Bhikhi and Mámuwáli and back to the Lahore district. This cut appears to have been formerly of considerable utility to the Lahore, and Gujránwála villages on its banks, but for many years it was neglected and silted up. In 1876 the Gujránwála District Board agreed to co-operate with the District Board, Lahore, to clear the channel, and increase the supply by putting a weir across the Deg at Pindi Rattan Singh; Gujránwála paying two-fifths of the cost, Lahore three-fifths. This was done at a cost of Rs. 5,000, to which the Gujránwála District Board contributed Rs. 2,129. When the work was completed the Lahore villages intercepted all the supply by means of dams. The Gujránwála villages complained of this, and after a lengthy correspondence Government decided (Punjab Government No. 623, dated 3rd September 1886) that the money advanced by Gujránwála could not be refunded, but that any dispute as to the distribution should be arranged by the Deputy Commissioners of Lahore and Gujránwála in co-operation. No action in this direction appears to have been taken, and the Gujránwála villages now receive none of the Deg water through this channel, though it sometimes is in flow after the rains.

The Nikayán.

Table No. III shows in tenths of an inch the total annual rainfall registered at each recording station from 1866-67, or such date as figures are available, to 1893-94.

Rainfall.

The mean rainfall at the chief stations over the whole period is:—

Gujránwála	25.3
Wazírabad	23.6
Háfizabad	19.7
Sheikhpura	16.2

The fall at head-quarter for the last four years is shown in the margin. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year at the district and tahsil head-quarters is shown in Tables III A. and III B. In the Assessment Reports

Year.	Tenths of an inch.	Year.	Tenths of an inch.
1889-90	... 32.1	1891-92	... 22.8
1890-91	... 18.8	1892-93	... 33.6

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Descriptive.
Rainfall.

the fall at the sadr and tahsíl stations up to date has been ascertained to be—

Gujránwála	22·5
Wazírabad	22·27
Háfizabad	17·50

and as the registering stations are more favourably situated than the rest of the tahsíl, the averages for each tahsíl have been assumed as follows:—

Gujránwála	17·6
Wazírabad	21
Háfizabad	13·5

The mean for the whole district may be taken as 18 inches with a maximum of 32 inches in 1890-91 and a minimum of 9 inches in 1891-92. The rainfall, though moderate in amount for a Punjab district, is liable to great fluctuation, and though nearly three-fourths of the cultivation is protected by wells or canal irrigation, the area of sowings and the success of the crop depend largely on the rainfall being copious and seasonable.

Thus in 1891-92, when the mean rainfall was only 9 inches, the area of crops sown was in round numbers 630,000 acres, of which 85,000 failed and 545,000 were harvested, of which only 141,000 acres were grown on unirrigated land; while in 1892-93 the rains having been full and well distributed, the area of crops sown (excluding the returns for the new colonies in which canal irrigation was for the first time introduced) rose to 795,000 acres, of which only 26,000 acres failed and 769,000 acres came to maturity, including 301,116 acres of unirrigated crops.

The success of the crops in kharif depends on timely monsoon rains for sowing—and these are fairly certain, and on their continuance well into September, but the September rains in this district are very precarious, and of late years (September 1893 is an exception) have shown a tendency to fail altogether even when the monsoon rains have been heavy.

The rabi crops benefit most by abundance of rain for ploughing in July to September, and for sowing in October, and if they once sprout a timely fall in January or February will bring them to maturity.

An analysis of the figures shows that the monsoon and winter rains are decidedly poor one year in three, the autumn rains two years in three, so that the kharif crop which is mainly dependent on rain is more liable to failure than the rabi, which receives more aid from artificial irrigation. The extension of canal irrigation accompanied by an expansion of cultivation and extensive tree planting operations cannot fail to favourably affect the rainfall, especially in the hitherto dry and sterile Bár tract.

The variation of temperature as shown in the margin is

Table of temperature.

Temperature in shade in	1891			1892		
	Maximum in shade.	Minimum in shade.	Mean of all observa- tions.	Maximum in shade.	Minimum in shade.	Mean of all observa- tions.
May ...	105·8	65·2	85·9	116·4	62·9	91·2
July ...	116·4	69·3	92·3	116·4	71·3	89·0
December ...	75·5	31·2	57·0	73·5	29·3	54·9

very great, from the excessive heat of the months from April to September to the severe cold of December and January, yet the change of seasons is gradual, and the district enjoys a healthy reputation. The extremes of climate are greatest in the Bár tract where the fall of rain is scanty and the heat in the summer months is excessive; the residents, however, of that part are an exceptionally strong and healthy race, but to strangers and Hindustanis the temperature is most trying, and its effects on them very painful; ophthalmia, blindness, and severe cutaneous disorders being common among them from exposure to a glaring sun and extraordinary heat.

SECTION B.—GEOLOGY, FLORA AND FAUNA.

Our knowledge of Indian geology is as yet, so general in its nature, and so little has been done in the Punjab in the way of detailed geological investigation, that it is impossible to discuss the local geology of separate districts. But a sketch of the geology of the Province as a whole has been most kindly furnished by Mr. Medicott, Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, and is published *in extenso* in the provincial volume of the Gazetteer series, and also as a separate pamphlet.

The only mineral of importance is *kankar*, quarries of which are found in abundance all over the district and are much utilised by the Public Works Department for metalling the Grand Trunk Road, ballasting the Railway and burning lime for the canal works. Hitherto the *kankar* beds or quarries have been leased by the owners of the land in which they lie to contractors or the Public Works Department direct at so much per *superficies*, and a small royalty of 10 per cent. on the proceeds has been realised by Government. They have now been recorded as the property of Government. The income except in some villages along the Grand Trunk Road and close to canal works is not considerable.

The district is not rich in trees. The rainfall is hardly sufficient for spontaneous production, and till recently not much had been done in the way of planting road-side avenues, probably, because most of the main roads run through sandy or *kallar* soil unfavourable to growth. The line of the Grand

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Trees.

Chapter I, B.
Geology, Flora
and Fauna.
Trees.

Trunk Road is fairly well shaded with *hikar* (*Acacia arabica*) and *shisham* (*Dalbergia sissu*), and there are some good plantations along it.

The Forest and Railway Department have some promising *shisham* plantations in the vicinity of Wazírabad, but, except in the Chenáb valley, the district is on the whole bare of trees, and the landscape presents rather a blank and desolate appearance. Good timber for building purposes is rare, and has to be imported from Akhnúr or Jammu through the Jammu State and Forest Department depôts at Wazírabad. In the wilder portion of the district, and especially in the Bár, there is a scattered growth of *jand*, *karil*, *wahn* or *pilu* and *ber* or *malla*. The *jand* has a bipinnate leaf and thorns. It is found usually in low fertile land, and is very valuable as fire-wood and for making charcoal. Most of it has now been sold to contractors who retail it for fuel in Gujránwála and Lahore. The *wahn* has a smooth leaf; it is of little use for fuel or agriculture. The *karil* no leaf at all but thorns; it is used for small rafters (*karis*). All bear berries which are edible, but the *karil* berry is very astringent, and is, therefore, used for preserves and medicinal purposes. The fruit of the *ber* and *pilu* is much prized and has saved the Bár population from famine in more than one season of scarcity; notably in the hot weather of 1892, when the crops failed completely in this tract and the whole population was for several weeks dependent on this fruit for their support.

With advancing cultivation the Bár jungle is now rapidly disappearing. A great deal is, however, being done to plant avenues of trees, chiefly *shisham*, along the banks of the canal and the main roads where canal water is available, and after some years the Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn tahsils will be fairly well wooded.

Fruits and gardens.

In Gujránwála and Wazírabad many fine gardens have been planted around the towns of Gujránwála, Eminabad, Butála, Sohdra, Wazirabad, Akálgarh by the leading Sardárs or wealthy Dewáns.

In addition to the ordinary fruits, limes, lemon, pomegranates, figs, grapes, &c., Malta oranges which were imported 40 years ago by Colonel Clarke, direct from Malta, have spread all over the district and thrive wonderfully in the loamy soil around Gujránwála. Mango topes and palm groves are unknown, in fact all trees valuable for their fruit or timber are rare.

Wild animals.

Black buck are to be found over Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn, especially in the vicinity of Sheikhpura; ravine deer and hog deer are to be met with all over the district, but are not now numerous, and are rapidly disappearing as the waste

around Wazírabad and in the Bár after heavy rains, but big game is, on the whole, scarce, and it is impossible to secure a good bag without covering a great deal of ground and giving up at least a couple of days to it.

Wild pig abound in the Railway and Forest Department reserves around Wazírabad and are also found down the river in the *belás* opposite Chak Bhatti and Chuchak. The nature of the ground makes it difficult to ride them, but at night they wander up into the young crops of maize, sugarcane and wheat, and one can sometimes intercept them at day-break as they return to cover.

Wolves are found in the jungles along the Jhang border ; hares and jackals are fairly common all over the district.

Very good gray and black partridge shooting is to be got around Sheikupura in Rája Harbans Singh's rakhs, and on both sides of the Lahore-Shahpur road up to Khángah Dográn.

The small sand-grouse is found all over the Bár at all seasons, the imperial variety is rare. The gray goose is rarely met with on the Chenáb, but herons, *Kulin* (*kunj*) and several varieties of duck, from the mallard to the teal, abound all along the river and wherever there are large ponds or swamps as at Miráliwála, Kaulo Tárar, &c. The opening up of the Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn tahsils by the canal has now attracted the geese and duck from the river, and excellent shooting is to be found in the reservoirs for the canal waste water near Marh and other places. A few snipe are to be seen along the Deg, and in a few of the larger marshes, but they will probably soon be found along the canal.

In the Deg and the Chenáb the ordinary fish of the Punjab river, *mahásir*, *ráhu*, *chilwa* are found, but they are rarely of good quality and have a strong muddy flavour when full grown. The inhabitants of the Deg villages use fish largely as an article of diet, and outsiders or non-owners are allowed to fish only on consideration of giving one-fourth of the haul to the riparian owners. Government formerly used to lease the right to fish for a small sum to contractors supplying the Gujránwála and Lahore markets, but disputes arose between the lessees and the inhabitants, and the system has now been given up. On the whole it may be said that as regards *flora* and *fauna*, the district presents little to interest the scientific observer, or to arouse the energies of the sportsman.

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Geology, Flora
and Fauna.
Wild animals.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

Chapter II.
 History.
 General remarks.

Lying as it does on the highway by which the successive hordes of invaders from the north marched down to the struggle for the empire of Hindustán, and by which they returned victorious or defeated; closely identified also with the stirring events which led to the rise of the Sikh monarchy on the ruins of the old Mughal empire, few tracts in the Central Punjab have had a more unsettled history than this district, and its present condition bears evident traces of what it has suffered from the marches of invading armies, from political troubles and inter-tribal struggles.

One result of the chaos and confusion that prevailed is the absence of any authentic information as to the history of the district prior to Mughal rule to the early days of which most of the present tribes date their settlement in this district.

Colonisation of the
 district.

As to the tribes that preceded them, even tradition is silent and even for the first two and a half centuries of Mughal rule there is no record of the condition of the district beyond vague traditions and an occasional passing reference in the *Ain-i-Akbari* or other chronicles of the day.

The researches of antiquarians have however established the fact that the tract was of historical importance in the earliest days, that it contained in Sangla or Sakála near the Jhang border the capital of the Punjab where Alexander met with one of the most serious checks in his career of victory, and that at a later period about 630 A.D. when the Chinese pilgrim Hwen Thsang visited India, Asarúr near Khángah Dográn (also known as Masrúr) was the capital of a kingdom stretching from the Indus to the Beás. The ruins of ancient cities of vast extent, the sites of ruined villages, the remains of wells and ancient irrigation works, scattered over the wildest portions of the district, where till the change wrought by the canal a few years ago, there was nothing but an expanse of barren jungle, and no fixed population, all point to a period when the tract must have been densely populated and highly cultivated; and though popular tradition associates this golden age, "when every rood of land maintained its man," with the name of Akbar, it clearly belongs to a much earlier period. Could the veil that shrouds the past be drawn aside, a glimpse into the early history of the district would no doubt reveal a picturesque and momentous past. In the present state of our information further speculation on the subject, however fascinating is likely to bear no fruit, and it only remains to set forth the conclusions arrived at by the late Sir Alexander

Cunningham in the "Archæological Survey Report," II 200—202 and XIV 43—44 and in the "Ancient Geography of India," pages 148, 180, 191, 193.

The Chinese pilgrim, Hwen Tshang, in A.D. 630 visited a town, which he calls Tse-kia, and describes as the capital of a kingdom embracing the whole of the plains of the Punjab from the Indus to the Beás, and from the foot of the mountains to the junction of the five rivers below Mooltan. The site of this town is with a near approach to certainty, identified by General Cunningham with a mound in this district near the modern village of Asarúr, situated two miles to the south of Khángah Masrúr, commonly called Khángah Dográn, on the road from Lahore to Pindi Bhattián, 45 miles distant from the former, and 24 from the latter place. It is said that the people of Khángah Masrúr never sleep on beds, but on the ground, out of respect to the saints buried there who practised similar austerities. The force of General Cunningham's identification mainly hinges upon the more celebrated discovery of the site of the Súngala of Alexander in the ruins at Súnglawála Tibba in the Jhang district, 16 miles to the south-west of Asarúr. This Súngala or Sákala * General Cunningham believes to have been the most ancient capital of the kingdom, and to have been superseded by Tse-kia, or Tákí, at some time during the nine centuries which elapsed between the invasion of Alexander and the travels of Hwen Tshang; and he discusses the geographical identification of Asarúr with the Tse-kia of Hwen Tshang in terms which, read together with his account of Súngala (abridged in the Gazetteer of the Jhang district), leave little room to doubt its correctness.

"The pilgrim," he says, "places this new town Tse-kia at 15 li, or 2½ miles to the north-east of Sákala; but as all the country within that range is open and flat, it is certain that no town could ever have existed in the position indicated. In the same direction, however, but at 19 miles, or 115 li, I found the ruins of a large town, called Asarúr, which accord almost exactly with the pilgrim's description of the new town of Tse-kia.† It is necessary to fix the position of this place, because Hwen Tshang's measurements, both coming and going, are referred to it and not to Sákala. From Kashnúr the pilgrim proceeded by Panch to Rájputra, a small town in the lower hills, which is now called Rajauri. From thence he travelled to the south-east over a mountain, and across a river called *Chen ta-lo-po-kia*, which is the Chandrabhága or modern Chenáb, to *She-ye-pu-lo* or Jayapura (probably Háfizabad), where he slept for the night; and on the next day he reached Tse-kia, the whole distance being 700 li, or 116 miles. As a south-east direction would have taken the pilgrim to the east of the Rávi, we must look for some known point in his subsequent route as the best means of checking this erroneous bearing. This fixed point we find in *She-lan-to-lo*, the well known Jalandhara, which the pilgrim places at 500 plus 50, plus 140 or 150 li, or altogether between 690 and 700 li to the east of Tse-kia. This place was therefore, as nearly as possible, equi-distant from Rajauri and Jullundur. Now Asarúr is exactly 112 miles distant from each of these places in a direct line drawn on the map, and as it is undoubtedly a very old place of considerable size, I am satisfied that it must be the town of Tse-kia described by Hwen Tshang."‡

* See Gazetteer of Jhang district.

† According to Hwen Tshang, the circuit of Tse-kia was about 20 li, or upwards of three miles, which agrees sufficiently well with General Cunningham's measurement of the ruins of Asarúr. He made the whole circuit 15,600 feet or just three miles.

‡ From its position General Cunningham also infers that it was the Pimprama of Alexander's historian. See Gazetteer of Jhang.

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History.

Ancient history :
Asarúr.

Chapter II.

History.
Ancient history of
Asarúr.

Popular tradition is silent as to the history of Asarúr. The people merely state that it was originally called Udamnagar or Uda-Nagari, and that it was deserted for many centuries until Akbar's time, when Ugah Shah, a Dogar, built the mosque which still exists on the top of the mound. The antiquity claimed for the place is confirmed by the large size of the bricks, $18 \times 10 \times 3$ inches, which are found all over the ruins, and by the great numbers of Indo-Scythian coins that are discovered annually after heavy rain. Its history therefore certainly reaches back to the first century before the Christian era. The ruins consist of an extensive mound 15,600 feet, or nearly three miles, in circuit. The highest point is in the north-west quarter, where the mound rises to 59 feet above the fields. This part, which General Cunningham takes to have been the ancient palace, is 600 feet long and 400 feet broad, and quite regular in shape. It contains an old well, 21 feet in diameter, which has not been used for many years, and is now dry. The palace is completely surrounded by a line of large mounds about 25 feet in height, and 8,100 feet, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles in circuit, which was evidently the stronghold or citadel of the place. The mounds are rounded and prominent, like the ruins of large towers or bastions. On the east and south sides of the citadel the mass of ruins sinks to 10 and 15 feet in height, but it is twice the size of the citadel, and is no doubt the remains of the old city. There are no visible traces of any ancient buildings, as all the surface bricks have been long ago carried off to the neighbouring shrine of Ugah Shah at Khángah Masrúr on the road from Lahore to Pindi Bhattián; but amongst the old bricks forming the surrounding wall of the mosque, General Cunningham found three moulded in different patterns, which could only have belonged to buildings of some importance. He found also a wedge-shaped brick 15 inches long and three inches thick, with a breadth of 10 inches at the narrow end and nearly $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches at the broad end. This could only have been made for a *stupa*, or a well, but most probably for the latter, as the existing well is 21 feet in diameter. The modern village of Asarúr contains 45 houses only. At the time of Hwen Thsang's visit there were ten monasteries, but very few Buddhists, and the mass of the people worship the Brahminical gods. To the north-east of the town at 10 *li*, or nearly two miles, there was a *stupa* of Asoka, 200 feet in height, which marked the spot where Buddha had halted, and which was said to contain a large quantity of his relics. This *stupa*, General Cunningham identifies with the little mound of *Sálár*, near Thatta Sayyadán, just two miles to the north of Asarúr.

On leaving *Tse-kiá*, Hwen Thsang travelled eastward to *Na-lo-seng-ho*, or *Nára-Sinha*, beyond which place he entered a forest of *Po-lo-she* or *pilu* trees (*salvadora persica*).* This town of

* Julien's Hwen Thsang, i. 97.

Nára-Sinha, General Cunningham supposes to be represented by the large ruined mound of Ransi, which is situated nine miles to the south of Sheikhpura, and 25 miles to the E. S.—E. of Asarúr, and about the same distance to the west of Lahore.* *Si*, or *Sih*, is the usual Indian contraction for *sinh*, and *ran* is stated to be a well-known interchange of pronunciation with *nar*. In Ransi therefore, we have not only an exact correspondence of position but also the most precise agreement of name with the *Nára-Sinha* of the Chinese pilgrim.† The remains of Ransi consist of a large ruined mound thickly covered with broken bricks of large size. Coins also are occasionally found by the saltpetre manufacturers. And it may be remarked that the presence of saltpetre derived from man's occupation itself affords a certain proof that the mound of Ransi is not a natural elevation, but an artificial accumulation of rubbish, the result of many centuries. Ransi also possesses a tomb of a *Nao-gaja*, or giant of "nine yards," which is believed by General Cunningham to be the remains of a recumbent statue of Buddha, after his attainment of *nirvána*, or death.

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Ransi or *Nára-Sinha*.

From the time of Hwen Thsang nothing further is known of the history of Tse-kia, or Táki, which had been superseded in importance by Lahore long before the advent of Muhammadan power. Under Muhammadan rule, the principal places in the district were Eminabad and Háfizabad. It is stated by Major Nisbet, who effected a revised settlement of the land revenue in 1866-67, to have been divided during the Muhammadan period into six parganahs, as is shown in the margin, neither

Muhammadan period.

Eminabad.
Sohdra.
Sáhomalli.
Chatha.
Háfizabad.
Sheikhpura.

Gujránwála nor Wazírabad, at present the largest towns of the district, being mentioned as enjoying any fiscal or political importance. The site of Gujránwála falls within the old parganah of Eminabad, and the site of Wazírabad within that of Sohdra. The parganahs of Háfizabad, Eminabad, and Sáhomalli are clearly recognisable in the list of *maháls* given in the *Ain-i-Akbari* of the Rechnabad *sirkár* of the Lahore *súba*, and it is not impossible that Major Nisbet's parganah of Búcha Chatha is to be identified with the mahul "Bagh Roy Boochey" of Gladwin's translation, Chatha being merely the name of an important tribe holding that portion of the district. The parganahs of Sohdra and Sheikhpura must have been established later, as it is impossible to identify these names with any given in the *Ain-i-Akbari*. The Eminabad parganah is believed to have included also a portion of the present

* These ruins are in the Lahore district, but are mentioned here on account of their connection with Asarúr.

† This identification is the more valuable, as it furnishes the most conclusive "evidence that could be desired, of the accuracy of Hwen Thsang's emplacement "of Ságala to the westward of the Rávi, instead of the eastward as indicated by "the classical authorities."—General Cunningham.

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Muhammadan period.

Siālkot district. It is not improbable also that Sāhomalli included a part of the present Lahore district. The revenue of the four *mahāls* above identified is thus given in the *Ain-i-Akari* :—

	Rs.
Eminbad	6,21,325
Hāfizabad	1,13,700
Sāhomalli
Bagh Roy Bucha

Leading tribes and their distribution.

The agricultural tribes of the district, though many of them lay claim to Rājput descent, and still preserve certain Rājput traditions, e. g., their women never render any direct assistance in agriculture, are undoubtedly of Jat origin. The Jats hold 994 estates out of 1,223 estates, viz. :—

Gujrānwāla	393 out of	455
Wazirabad	228 do.	266
Hāfizabad	374 do.	502

In Gujrānwāla the most important Jat tribes are : Virakhs 76 villages ; Varāichs 34 ; Chimas 20 ; Gurayās 21 ; Dothars and Sekhūs 24. The Virakhs are mainly, the Varāichs largely, Sikhs ; the Dhotars and Sekhūs are nearly all Hindūs ; the other tribes are, for the most part, Musalmān. In Wazirabad the eastern or more fertile portion of the tahsil is held by Chimās 93 villages ; the western and less fertile by Chathās 55 villages ; there are no other tribes holding 10 villages or over. The Chimās and Chathās are almost exclusively, and the other Jats mainly, Muhammadan. In Hāfizabad the proprietary body is more mixed and property in land is of more recent growth. The Bhattīs, who are undoubtedly Rājputs, and Bhagsinkes, who, though they claim affinity with the Bhattīs, are probably the descendants of Bār nomads who settled down to agriculture in the later days of Sikh rule, own between them 81 estates. While Chathās, who spread into the tahsil from Wazirabad, and Virakhs, who extended their settlement from Gujrānwāla and wrested the south-east of the tahsil from the Bhattīs, hold, respectively, 53 and 44 estates. Tārars, who emigrated from beyond the river in Gujrat 200 years ago, hold 53 estates along the river, and Kharrals from Montgomery, about the middle of the last century, dispossessed many of the old Hindu owners and now hold 42 villages. The rest of the tahsil is occupied chiefly by miscellaneous Jats, Hinjrās and Jags, 24 estates Gurayās, Dhotars, Gondals, &c. Excepting the Virakhs, who are mainly Sikhs, and the Hinjrās, who are mainly Hindūs, the remaining tribes, excluding the Bhattīs, hold 47 estates, the most important being Sayads, Khattrīs and Brahmīns.

Origin of existing villages in Gujrānwāla and Wazirabad.

The settlements in Gujrānwāla and Wazirabad are nearly all of old dates. The immigration of the leading tribes appears to have taken place in Mughal days when most of the existing

villages were founded. Even tradition is silent as to the races who preceded them. War, famine and inter-tribal struggles in the first half of the last century brought about the ruin of all but the strongest communities, but the people were too deeply rooted in the soil to permanently desert their settlements, and when the consolidation of Sikh rule in the latter half of the century inaugurated an era of comparative peace and security, the old owners, who had temporarily bowed to the storm and taken refuge in their tribal strongholds, at once resumed possession of their deserted homesteads, restored the wells, reclaimed the land, and in many cases showed such tenacity in adhering to their ancient institutions and traditions that they maintained the same proprietary shares as had existed prior to their dispossession. Thus in these two tahsils the present owners are the descendants of the men who held the land under Mughal rule, and the tribal and village traditions have continued in an unbroken chain from that era.

In Háfizabad the state of things is different. That tract appears to have been held in Mughal times by Hindu Jats of the Hinjra and Jag subdivisions (*gôts*), and most of the numerous ruins of what were once apparently flourishing settlements are identified with the days of their ascendancy. When the central authority became enfeebled at the beginning of last century, these industrious but unwarlike Hindu tribes fell a prey to the more vigorous Musalmán races, Kharral and Bhagsinke nomads from the Bár, Chathás, Tárars and Bhattis of semi-pastoral habits, who speedily ejected them from all but a fraction of their villages, but having taken forcible possession of the land often failed to work it for agriculture, and preferred to follow their old pastoral life. In the general struggle for the soil, the Virakhs of the Gujranwála tahsíl, a Sikh tribe with strong military traditions, got a foothold in the tahsíl and ejected the Bhattis from many villages which the latter had wrested from the Hinjrás. One result of this difference in the history of Háfizabad is that agricultural progress has been much slower than in the other tahsils. In Gujranwála and Wazirabad the people are similar in character and habits to the ordinary peasant of the Central Punjab, while in Háfizabad they still retain many traces of their pastoral and nomadic character. The bond between them is rather that of the tribe than of the village community. They are averse to manual labour, and inclined on slight temptation to return to their old predatory habits. No doubt they were being gradually weaned from these habits under our rule, but the canal in a few years has done more to civilise them and make them look to honest labour for their living than the previous 50 years of settled Government, and every year they will assimilate more and more in character to the ordinary Punjab peasant.

Over the whole district the period between the decline of the Mughal empire on the death of Aurangzeb and the rise of the Sikh confederacies (roughly the first half of the 18th

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century) was one of indescribable confusion and anarchy. The empire was gradually falling to pieces owing to intestine quarrels and successive shocks of invasion from the north-west. There was no strong central authority to maintain peace and order. It was devastated again and again by the invading armies of Nádir Shah and Ahmad Shah Abdáli, and the prosperity which had been slowly built up in the previous two centuries gave place here, as elsewhere, to desolation and misery. In the general insecurity of life and property tribe fought against tribe, village against village; all but the strongest positions were abandoned, homesteads were deserted, and the face of the country became a wilderness. The traditions of nearly every village show that in this period of rapine, it was sacked, burnt or deserted; the continuity of village life was broken, and the old owners fled for safety to the jungles or to fortified towns, in some cases disappearing for ever, in others returning after the lapse of a decade or a generation when the spread of disorder was checked by the rising power of the Sikhs. The Gujránwála district was among the first in which Sikh dominion was established; it has many associations with the Sikh *regimé*, and an intimate connection with the fortunes of the Sikh royal family. Gujránwála city was the birth-place of Maha Singh and his more famous son Ranjít Singh, and a monument in marble, erected in 1891 by the Sikh Sardárs at the instance of Mr. Ibbetson, the then Deputy Commissioner, marks the site of the humble abode where the great Mahárája was born and spent his youth. Charat Singh, Sukarchakia (so named from his birth-place in the Amritsar district), a Sánsi Jat of the Mánjha, was one of the most daring and successful adventurers whom that disturbed period brought to the front. His aid was invoked by his fellow tribesmen, the Sánsi Jats of this district, a small tribe around Gujránwála with their head-quarters in the city, in their struggle against the Varáich tribe led by the famous robber Chief Bare Khan.

Rise of the Sikh
power.

The old fable of the horse and the man repeated itself. The Sánsis of Gujránwála repelled the Varáichs, but found they had overcome a rival only to saddle themselves with a master. In 1765 Charat Singh seized Gujránwála city which was thenceforward the head-quarters of himself till his death in 1773, of his son Maha Singh, and of his more celebrated grandson Mahárája Ranjít Singh till the capture of Lahore by the latter in 1799 A. D. To this event may be traced the origin of the central power among the Sikhs.

Before, however, that power culminated in the establishment of the Sikh monarchy by Ranjít Singh, he had successively to resist and overcome or assimilate the rival Sikh leaders and confederacies and the local Muhammadan chiefs. This work was begun by Charat Singh, continued by Maha Singh, and successfully accomplished by Ranjít Singh in 1810 A. D.

Of the rival Sikh chiefs the most powerful were—

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- (1) Bhág Singh, Virakh, a native of Karyál in the Gujranwála tahsíl, who had risen to note among his tribesmen, a warlike clan of Sikhs, occupying the south-west of the Gujranwála and south-east of the Háfizabad tahsils, and established his authority over Mírálíwála and 100 villages in the vicinity ;
- (2) Gurbakhsh Singh, Varáich, a freebooter; from Chabba in the Mánjha, who seized Wazírabad about 1780 and occupied some 50 villages in the neighbourhood;
- (3) Gujar Singh, Bhangi, another successful Sikh marauder from the Mánjha who, about 1780, established himself north of the Chenáb at Gujrát and gradually extended his possessions till they included the taluqás of Soldra on the south bank of the river and Eminabad and Nangal Bunna Singh in the south-east of this district, *in all* some 150 villages.

Of the Muhammadan tribes who struggled with most success to maintain their independence, the most prominent were the Bhattís and Tárars in the Háfizabad tahsíl who were overcome by Ranjít Singh, and the Chathás in the western half of the Wazírabad tahsíl who carried on an unceasing and bitter struggle against Sikh ascendancy till their final overthrow by Ranjít Singh in 1799.

Charat Singh having seized Gujranwála, proceeded to extend his authority over the neighbourhood, and in a few years brought the taluqás of Gujranwála, Kila Didár Singh, Kila Mían Singh, Kila Sáhib Singh, embracing the northern half of the Gujranwála tahsíl, under his sway, together with the Sheikhpur iláqa and a small circle of villages around Akálgarh. He was killed near Jammu in 1773 by the bursting of his gun when assisting the Kanhaya confederacy in an expedition against the hill Rájás. His son, Maha Singh, showed himself as able and unscrupulous a leader as his father.

Consolidation of the Sikh power.

The decaying power of the Mughals at the beginning of the last century had given the Chatha tribe the opportunity of making a bold push for political ascendancy in this part of the Rechna Doáb. Under Núr Muhammad, the first leader of note amongst them, and Pír Muhammad and Ahmad Khan, his more famous sons, they built and fortified the strongholds of Manchar, Alipur (Akálgarh) and Rasúlnagar (Rámnagar), and about 1750 raised the standard of independence by refusing to pay tribute to the Mughal governor at Lahore. The Mughals were unable to exact allegiance or revenue, but Mir Mannu, the representative of Ahmad Shah Durráni, who had now seized the empire, laid siege to Manchar in 1764. The siege was ineffectual, and soon afterwards the Emperor recognised the Chatha chiefs and confirmed them in their possessions, probably as a counterpoise

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to the rising power of the Sikh confederacies in Gujránwála. At this time they held sway over 150 villages or more than half of the Wazírabad tahsil, and their increasing power soon brought them into collusion with Charat Singh, the head of the Sukarchakia confederacy, who was extending his possessions in Gujránwála.

Charat Singh after the occupation of Gujránwála had found himself strong enough to turn his arms against the Chathás. The struggle was carried on with varying success for 10 years between Charat Singh and Ahmad Khan. On the death of the former in 1773 and of the latter in 1775, it was continued by their sons Maha Singh and Ghulám Muhammad, the bravest and ablest of the Chatha chiefs. Under his leadership the Chathás gained several successes over the Sikhs, in one of which they captured the famous Bhangi gun, and it at one time looked as if the progress of the Sikh arms had been arrested and their dominion in the Doáb annihilated. Maha Singh at this crisis strengthened himself by an alliance with his rival Sáhib Singh, the son of Gujār Singh, Bhangi, to whom he gave his sister Ráj Kaur in marriage, and the combined forces of the two Sikh chiefs proved too strong for the raw levies of brave but untrained peasants which the Chathás opposed to them. Ghulám Muhammad was driven back into his fortress at Manchar to which siege was laid by the Sikhs, and seeing that further resistance was ineffectual he offered to surrender on promise of permission to retire in safety to Mecca. The promise was given but basely broken; most of the garrison was put to the sword; Ghulám Muhammad himself was shot at the instigation of Maha Singh; the fortress was raised to the ground, and the possessions of the Chatha chiefs were appropriated by Maha Singh, or distributed as rewards among his followers, viz., Dal Singh, Kaliánwála, of Akálgarh, who had married the sister of Charat Singh, Jowábir Singh, Bastani, Sohél Singh, Bhangi, who had married the sister of Maha Singh and Jai Singh Mán who had married his daughter to the Sukarchakia chief. To mark the overthrow of the Muhammadan chiefs and the triumph of the Sikhs, the names of Rasúlpur and Alipur were altered to Rámnagar and Akálgarh, but the old names are still religiously adhered to by every Muhammadan in this part of the Doáb, and the heroic resistance of Ghulám Muhammad and his treacherous end are still celebrated in many a local ballad. Maha Singh pursued his success in a manner characteristic of the age, by turning his arms against his ally and brother-in-law Sáhib Singh, the Bhangi chief, but the latter made a successful resistance and maintained his independence till his death in A. D. 1801 when his possessions were forcibly annexed by Ranjít Singh, who however gave the widow Ráj Kaur, a daughter of Charat Singh, a *jágir* of Rs. 4,000 per annum for her maintenance.

Maha Singh died at Sohdra in 1791. His death is said to have been hastened by mortification at the failure of his attempt to oust

Sáhib Singh from Sohdra which he was at the time ineffectually besieging. In an age when success depended solely on unscrupulous, daring, reckless courage and unrestrained cruelty he had won himself a foremost position by a pre-eminence in these qualities which it was left for his son and successor Ranjít Singh to surpass. The same qualities which had raised the father from a successful freebooter to the leader of a powerful confederacy, raised the son to be the despotic ruler of a powerful kingdom.

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In this, his native district, he found himself confronted with the same difficulty as his father and grandfather. The local Muhammadan tribes had still to be reduced, the rival Sikh chieftains had to be overcome or conciliated. The Cháthas made another struggle for independence, Ján Muhammad, the son of Ghulám Muhammad, had fled to Kábul after the fall of Manchar, and returning in 1799 with aid from Zamán Shah—Ranjít Singh being then occupied with the Bhatti and Tárar tribes of Háfizabad—the country rose in his favour, the Sikh garrisons were expelled, and Ján Muhammad re-established himself in Rámnagar. His success was however short lived. Ranjít Singh took the field with a large army and laid siege to Rámnagar. Ján Muhammad was killed in the siege, the garrisons surrendered, the power of the Chatha tribe which had played so prominent a part in the politics of the 18th century was broken, and their villages quietly submitted to the Mahárája's sway. Emboldened by this success and strengthened in resources and prestige by the possession of Lahore which he had captured in the same year, 1799, Ranjít Singh determined to subdue once for all the turbulent Muhammadan tribes of Háfizabad which for years had been offering a guerilla resistance to his troops. He entered the tract with a large army and in a short time overcame the Kharrals, Lodikes, and even the Tárars. The Bhatís alone, true to their Rájpút traditions, offered a determined resistance, and though defeated in the field, they entrenched themselves in the fortified towns of Jalálpur and Pindi Bhattián. These were, however, taken by storm in A. D. 1801. Most of the Bhatti leaders were killed, the survivors who fled for protection to the Siyáls of Jhang were outlawed and their possessions confiscated. When the power of the Sikhs was broken in the 2nd Sikh war, and the Punjab annexed, they returned and were restored to most of their old possessions. The power of the local tribes having thus been broken, it remained to overcome the rival Sikh chiefs. Most of these were the descendants of the adventurers who had aided Charat Singh and Maha Singh in establishing their power. Many of them were nearly connected with the Mahárája by blood or marriage, but neither the remembrance of past services, nor the ties of blood, could restrain Ranjít Singh in his career of unscrupulous ambition. Dal Singh, of Akálgarh, the brother-in-law of Charat Singh, had been the most strenuous supporter of the Sukarchakias in their various campaigns against

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the Chathás, and on the overthrow of the latter had received a large portion of their possessions in *Jágir*. For some years after Ranjít Singh's accession, Dal Singh was his most trusted adviser. His increasing influence however excited the Mahárája's jealousy and brought on a rupture. Ranjít Singh made an attack on Akálgarh in 1800, which was successfully resisted by Sahju the wife of Dal Singh. Dal Singh died in 1804, Ranjít Singh captured Akálgarh and Ahmadanagar, and annexed Dal Singh's possessions, making however, according to his custom, a decent provision for the family by the grant of a *jágir*, and thus attaching them to his standard.

Jodh Singh, Varaich, whose sister had married Charat Singh, and whose father Gurbakhsh Singh had attached himself to the rising fortunes of that chief and received Wazírabad and 47 villages in the vicinity as a reward for his services, was the next victim. Jodh Singh had always aided Maha Singh against the Bhangi Chief Sáhíb Singh, but when the latter was besieged in Sohdra in 1790, Jodh Singh is suspected of having secretly supplied him with ammunition, fearing that Maha Singh, if successful, would become too powerful, and this action is said to have been the cause of Ranjít Singh's hostility to him. The ambition of the latter, however, supplies a motive beyond which it is unnecessary to seek.

Finding his enemy too powerful to be openly attacked, Ranjít Singh set a trap for him. He invited him to Lahore, received him in Darbár with great courtesy, and while professing friendship and esteem, suddenly gave the signal to have the Sardár seized. Jodh Singh drew his sword, and called on them to attack as he disdained to flee. The Mahárája was so struck with his gallantry that he dismissed him with safety, confirmed him in his possessions, and added to his *Jágirs*. A few years later, however, when Jodh Singh died in 1809, the Mahárája marched a force to Wazírabad and ruthlessly confiscated all the *Jágir*, allowing a small grant for the maintenance of Ganda Singh and Amrít Singh, the minor sons of Jodh Singh. The subsequent history of the family is given in Volume II, pages 214–216 of *Massy's Edition of the Punjab Chiefs*. The fate of the Bhangi Sardárs, whose estates in this district were finally confiscated in 1809, has already been related. The rise of Bhág Singh, the leader of the martial Virakh clan, who, in the time of Charat Singh and Maha Singh, had seized a large portion of the Gujránwála and Sheikhpura parganahs and extended his power up to the banks of the Rávi, has been referred to in an earlier page. Though a steady supporter of the Sukarchakiás while they were struggling against their rivals, he was too near the throne for the Mahárája to brook him as a rival. He was compelled in 1805 to sacrifice his independence and submit to the Mahárája who granted him 84 villages in *jágir* and put him in

command of the Virakh Horse. On his death in 1806 his son Jodh Singh succeeded to his position and emoluments. The subsequent history of the family is given in pages 219 and 220 of *Punjab Chiefs* (Volume II). Another branch of the Virakh tribe, under Sáhíb Singh, had established a strong position in and around Sheikhpura, whence they had expelled the Lobána tribe. In 1808 the Mahárája turned his arms against them. For some time they made a successful resistance in the fort of Sheikhpura, but were at length induced to submit under promise of considerate treatment. They were granted considerable *jágírs*, entered the Mahárája's service, and for many years were among the most zealous and loyal of his followers.

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Thus by force and fraud, tempered with conciliation, Ranjít Singh had succeeded in overcoming all local opposition and cleared the way for the extension of his dominion over the whole Punjab.

The whole of the district now acknowledged his sway, and it only remains to describe his system of administration. About half of the conquered lands were retained by the Mahárája under direct management as part of the Sikh royal domain (*khálsa*), or farmed out in groups to persons who contracted to pay in a fixed amount of cash or grain to the State, making what they could out of the people. These were administered by *kárdárs* or governors who exercised general jurisdiction on behalf of the sovereign. Sikh administration under Ranjít Singh.

The intimate connection of many of the leading Sikh families with the Mahárája who selected many of his bravest generals, such as Hari Singh Nalwa of Gujranwála, Misr Dewán Chand of Gondlanwála, ablest governors, such as Dewán Sáwan Mal of Akálgarh, Dewán Dhanpat Rái of Sohdra, and successful courtiers, such as Jowáhir Singh, Bastani, of Rámnagar, Jai Singh, Mán, and Shám Singh, of Butála—from this district, and the fact that the descendants of the supplanted Sikh chiefs had been allowed to succeed to part of their possessions, led to the grant of nearly half the district in *jágír* to the favourites, relatives and servants of the Mahárája, subject to military or other services and to the royal pleasure.

It is not always possible to discriminate with accuracy the position of the *jágírdárs* and local governors as the leading *jagírdárs* were often allowed to contract for the management of groups of estates outside their *jágírs*, and the *kárdárs* or governors held part of their *iláqás* in *jágír* as a reward for their services. The table below shows roughly how the different *talúqás* or *parganahs* were held up to their absorption by Ranjít Singh, how they were distributed by him, and whether they were granted in *jágír* or managed through the royal deputies.

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Sikh administration under Ranjít Singh.

Serial No.	Name of talugas.	Number of villages.	By whom held prior to foundation of Sikh kingdom.	To whom granted when conquered or annexed by Ranjít Singh.	Jágírdárs.	Kárdárs.
1	Kila Sáhib Singh	6	Charat Singh and Maha Singh.	Sáhib Singh (Bedi)	Jágír.	
2	Do. Didár Singh	33	Do. do.	Rattan Singh (Dhulla), Sardár Mujan Singh	...	Kárdár.
3	Do. Mián Singh	9	Do. do.	Do. Sahaj Singh	Jágír.	
4	...	11	Do. do.	Do. Sahaj Singh	...	Kárdár.
5	Gujránwála ...	69	Do. do.	Do. Hari Singh, Nalwa.	Jágír.	
6	Akálgarh ...	44	Sardár Dal Singh (Kaliánwála).	Dewán Sáwan Mal	...	Kárdár.
7	Sheikhupura ...	205	Sáhib Singh and Sahai Singh (Virakhs).	Ráni Nikayan ...	Jágír.	
8	Miráliwála ...	98	Bhág Singh (Virakh).	Sardár Bhág Singh	Do.	
9	Jhabrán ...	43	Virakh tribe ...	Ráni Nikayan ...	Do.	
10	Sohra ...	48	Sardár Sáhib Singh (Bhangi).	Dewán Dhanpat Rái.	...	Kárdár.
11	Bharoke ...	15	Mt. Ráj Kaur (wife of Sáhib Singh).	Musstí, Ráj Kaur	Jágír.	
12	Kote Bare Khan...	13	Sardár Sáhib Singh (Bhangi).	Sardár Fateh Singh (Mán).	Do.	
13	Eminabad...	21	Do. do.	Rája Dhían Singh of Jammu.	...	Kárdár.
14	Nangal Dunna Singh.	9	Do. do.	Dewán Ganpat Rái	...	Do.
15	Wazírabád ...	47	Jodh Singh (Varáich).	Do.
16	Ahmadnagar ...	25	Ghulám Muhammad (Chatha).	Jalál Khan (Bhatti).	Jágír.	
17	Ghakkar ...	35	Do. do.	Hari Singh Nalwa	Do.	
18	Rámnagar...	50	Do. do.	Jowáhir Singh (Bastani).	...	Kárdár.
19	Háúzabád ...	58	Bhatti tribe ...	Misr Ralía Rám	Do.
20	Jalálpur ...	22	Do. do. ...	Dewán Sáwan Mal	...	Do.
21	Jangla ...	5	Do. do. ...	Do. do.	...	Do.
22	Pindi Bhattián ...	93	Do. do. ...	Do. do.	...	Do.
23	Chak Bhatti ...	21	Do. do. ...	Rája Guláb Singh	...	Do.
24	Rámpur ...	44	Tárar tribe ...	Do. do.	...	Do.
25	Kaulo Tárar ...	9	Do. do. ...	Rattan Singh ...	Jágír.	
26	Vanike ...	23	Do. do. ...	Rája Guláb Singh	...	Kárdár.

Leading jágírdárs.

Sikh

Of the jágírdárs the most famous were Hari Singh Nalwa, a Khatri of Gujránwála city, where his descendants still reside, whose personal valour earned him the title of the "Ney of the Punjab," and whose exploits in extending the Sikh dominions were hardly eclipsed by those of the Mahárája himself. He was killed near Jamrud in 1837 while bravely resisting the attack of the army which the Amír Dost Muhammad had sent to capture the fort, and the invading army was repelled by the Mahárája in person who arrived with reinforcement from Rámnagar, a distance of over 200 miles, in 4 days. His death was an irreparable loss to the Sikhs. As a governor he was harsh but strong, Rani Nikayan, the senior wife of the Mahárája, held nearly one-fourth of the district, including all

the southern portion bordering on Lahore, in *jágir*, and maintained a semi-royal state in the fort at Sheikhpura, finding a substantial compensation for her being supplanted in the Mahárája's affections by younger and more pleasing rivals in the income which she derived from her wide possession. Though notoriously avaricious, she was wise and farseeing enough to encourage cultivation by making grant of waste lands to cultivators and settling tenants in the villages which had been deserted in the struggle between the Virakhs and Bhattis.

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History.

Leading Sikh *jágir*-
dárs.

Of the *kárdárs*, General Avitabile, whose head-quarters were at Wazirabad which he considerably enlarged and beautified, is remembered as having been the first to introduce the system of fixed cash payments in substitution for the old rude systems of appraisement (*kankut*) or division of the crop (*batai*). The two greatest were Dewán Sáwan Mal and Raja Guláb Singh, who held most of the Háfizabad tahsíl in farm. The name of the former is remembered here, or elsewhere, for the justice of his decisions, the moderation of his assessment, and the wisdom which led him to conciliate and settle in the soil the turbulent and predatory tribes of the Bár—Kharrals, Bhag-sinkas, &c., by giving them grants of waste lands on easy terms, and remitting part of the assessment in favour of those who founded villages, sunk wells, or otherwise developed cultivation.

Leading Sikh *Kár*-
dárs or Governors.

The memory of Guláb Singh, on the other hand, and of his unscrupulous agent, the Wazir Rattan, is execrated by the people for their oppressive assessments which all but crushed the tract in their charge. The character of the *kárdárs* generally, with the single exception of Sáwan Mal, cannot be better summed up than in the words of Mr. Barnes—

“The problem of his life was to maintain cultivation at the highest possible level, and at the same time to keep the cultivator at the lowest point of depression.”

Of the Sikh rule generally it may be said that while it introduced an era of comparative order and security by setting up a barrier against invasion from outside and stamping out tribal feuds and private wars of rival chieftains, it did little else to improve the position of the great mass of the people. These were left to the mercy of the *jágirdárs* or *kárdárs* whose discretion was practically unbounded as long as they furnished their contingent of troops to the royal army, or their quota of revenue to the royal treasury.

Individual *jágirdárs* or *kárdárs*, such as Sáwan Mal, taking a broad and farseeing view of their position and responsibilities, might now and again endeavour to promote the welfare of the people in their charge, but these were the exceptions; and the vast majority, dressed in a little brief authority, hastened to make the most of their power by squeezing what they could out of the people.

Chapter II.**History.****Leading Sikh Kárdárs.**

In this respect the rapacity of the *jágírdárs*, and especially of the Jat Sikh *Sárdárs*, exceeded even that of the *kárdárs*. A common figure of speech among the people likens them to ravening wolves who preyed at will on the helpless fold, or vampires who sucked the blood of human beings.

In fact the hand of the Sikhs fell heavier on this district on account of its proximity to the capital and close connection with the ruling family than almost on any other, owing to the number of rapacious followers who had to be provided for, the quartering of troops on the people, and the obligation to furnish supplies free to the Sikh armies on their way to and from the frontier.

Overthrow of the Sikh rule.

The overthrow of the Sikhs in the first Sikh war, in which many of the leading *Sárdárs* and *jágírdárs* of this district bore a prominent part, and the establishment of the Regency at *Láhore* under British control in 1855, dealt a severe blow to the authority of the *jágírdárs*, whose excesses since the death of the *Mahárája* in 1839 had known no restraint. The introduction of the summary settlement in 1847, the object of which was to substitute a fixed cash assessment for the arbitrary exactions which had hitherto prevailed, caused even deeper alarm. The *jágírdár* saw himself reduced from an irresponsible local autocrat, exercising almost unlimited jurisdiction to a mere assignee of a fixed cash assessment. The *kárdár* saw that there was no place for him in the new system. Both classes regarded the new order of things with sullen discontent, and when the outbreak of the second Sikh war offered a chance of shaking off the British control, and restoring the old order, it is not surprising that almost without exception they threw in their lot with the rebels. The result was fatal. The power of the Sikhs was finally broken at *Chiliánwála* and *Gujrát*. Of the rebel *Sárdárs* of this district many were killed in the above battles, the remainder joined in the general surrender, and were shorn of their honors and *jágirs*, receiving in some cases small life pensions for their maintenance.

Effect of the second Sikh war.

Among the families that played a prominent part in the rebellion on one side or the other, and were rewarded or punished accordingly at annexation, the following were the chief:—

The Nalwa family.

1. *Gurdit Singh*, *Jowáhir Singh* and *Arjan Singh* were the sons of *Hari Singh Nalwa*. *Arjan Singh* shut himself up in the fortified house built by *Hari Singh* outside *Gujránwála* with about 100 men and openly defied the Government. A small detachment sent to bring him into *Lahore* was unsuccessful; but when a body of troops sent by *Brigadier Campbell* and a squadron of *Skinner's Horse* marched against him, he fled. The defences of the house were destroyed and the property confiscated. The house, now known as the "*báradari*," is one of the most perfect surviving specimens of Sikh architecture, and is

one of the most pleasing residence in the civil station. The garden was at one time famous in the Punjab for its variety of rare trees and plants, and the first Malta oranges introduced in the Punjab were grown here.

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The Nalwa family.

Jowáhir Singh, whose sympathies were with the rebels, had been arrested at the beginning of the outbreak and kept a prisoner in Lahore. He escaped to Gujranwála with the connivance of his guards. His own fame as a soldier, and the name of his father Hari Singh soon attracted followers to his standard. He crossed the Chenáb and joining Rája Sher Singh fought with great gallantry at Chilliánwála. He it was who led the famous charge of irregular cavalry at Chilliánwála that drove the British Dragoons off the field, and so nearly turned the fortunes of that eventful day.

The *jágirs* of Gurdit Singh, Jowáhir Singh and Arjan Singh were resumed on annexation. Punjab Singh, the third son of Hari Singh, who was on bad terms with his brothers, refused to join the rebels, and his *jágirs* were maintained to him.

2. Of the Mán Sardárs, who then occupied a prominent position in the Sikh armies, Jagat Singh, Budh Singh, Baghel Singh and Fateh Singh remained faithful to the British, and were rewarded by the continuance of their *jágirs*; Rattan Singh, Jodh Singh, Jamiat Singh and Lehna Singh, who were serving under Sher Singh at Mooltan, went over with him to Múlráj and lost all their *jágirs* at annexation. The Mán family imitated the prescience of many a Highland Laird of the 17th and 18th centuries who sent a son to either camp, thereby securing immunity whichever side should win.

The Mán family.

3. Sardár Jhanda Singh of Butála, whose services in Hazára up to 1847, under Captain Abbot, had gained for him the title of Bahádur with the affix "Ujal didár, Nirmal budh" (open countenance and honest mind), hardly justified his reputation and was suspected of playing a double game. In May 1848 he was sent down the Sind-Ságar Doáb to prevent the spread of Múlráj's rebellion, and aid in the operations against Mooltan. His conduct at first was admirable, but as he neared Mooltan part of the force under him deserted to the rebels. The Sardár himself was suspected of being in communication with Múlráj, and was at once recalled to Lahore. There he seems to have re-assured the resident of his loyalty, and in August was sent on a mission to Sardár Chatar Singh, Governor of Hazára, whose loyalty was then wavering, to recall him to a sense of duty. Jhanda Singh was unsuccessful, and was generally suspected of having done his utmost to widen, and not to close, the breach.

The Butála Sardárs.

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Butála Sardárs.

He was ordered back to Lahore and put under arrest, but he seems to have been again able to dispel suspicion, was soon afterwards released; and during the last four or five months of the war he and his sovárs were employed to keep open the communications between Lahore and Rámnagar. Jhanda Singh played his part well in a difficult crisis, and when the Punjab was taken over all his personal *jágírs* amounting to Rs. 15,560 were confirmed to him for life. His descendants Sardárs Balwant Singh and Múl Singh, E. A. C.'s, Sardárs Arjan Singh and Suchet Singh now hold grants amounting to Rs. 5,486.

Other rebel Sikh
jágírdárs.

4. The following Sardárs Ganda Singh, Mattu, *jágírs* Rs. 19,000; Sáhib Singh, Virakh, grandson of Bhág Singh, already mentioned as having held independent power among his fellow tribesmen, *jágír* Rs. 14,000, the Virakh Sardárs of Bhikki already mentioned *jágír* Rs. 8,000. Gurmukh Singh and Atar Singh, the Hasanwália Sardárs, of Rámnagar, *jágír* Rs. 20,000 and Jowáhir Singh, Bastani, of Rámnagar, the royal chamberlain or master of the wardrobe, *jágír*, Rs. 12,000, openly joined in the rebellion and lost all their *jágírs*. The descendants of all of these are still living in the district.

The loyal Sardárs.

5. Among the Sardárs whose loyalty was undoubted, and whose services in that critical period were most valuable, besides those already mentioned, were Sardár Jodh Singh, Varáich, and his more famous brother Sardár Mán Singh, C.I.E., of Ruriála, and General Harsukh Rai of Háfizabad.

The events of the second Sikh war and its result, the annexation of the Punjab, thus brought about the downfall of many of the leading Sikh families of the district.

Conduct of the
Muhammádan tribes.

The Muhammádan tribes, on the other hand, who had been crushed by Ranjít Singh early in the century, were eager to pay off old scores, and anxious to recover their own. The Bhattís, Tárars, and Chathás of Wazírabad and Háfizabad rallied to the British standard, readily furnished supplies, brought in information of the movements of the enemy and fought on our side at Rámnagar, Chiliánwála and Gujrát. A plot to stir up the Sikh population of the district by the agency of a religious pretender, Guru Maháráj Singh, who was fomenting rebellion in the guise of a religious mendicant, was frustrated by the Patháns of Jhandiála Sher Khan, who gave timely information to the authorities. A force of horse was promptly despatched from Wazírabad, the offending villages, Karyál Jhabbar, Chuharkána, in which troops were being secretly enlisted, were plundered and burned down; Maháráj Singh had to flee to Jhang, where he was captured under the aid of the Bhatti chiefs. As a reward for these services the Bhattís and Tárars were restored to many of their estates from which

they had been ejected by the Sikhs, and the nominees of the latter were expelled by force of arms where necessary.

The annexation of the Punjab in 1849, while it involved the complete downfall or temporary eclipse of many of the leading families, was welcomed by the great mass of the people, and especially by the agricultural population.

At the first sub-division of the newly acquired province, the whole of the upper portion of the Rechna Doab from Jammu to the Jhang boundary and from the Chenáb to the Rávi, including this district and that of Siálkot, was formed into one district. The temporary head-quarters was at first Sheikhpura and for a short time Wazirabad. In 1851-52 this wide jurisdiction was broken up, and two districts were formed having their head-quarters at Siálkot and Gujranwála; the Gujranwála district as then arranged extending from the Chenáb to the Rávi, and comprising the four tahsils of Gujranwála, Rámnagar, Háfizabad and Sheikhpura. At the close of the regular settlement in 1856, several villages of the Sheikhpura tahsil were transferred to the Lahore district, and after some trifling changes of estates with Siálkot, the district was reconstituted into the three tahsils of Gujranwála, Wazirabad and Rámnagar. Excluding the transfer of a large area, 13 rakhs with 87,480 acres from Jhang in 1884, the only changes which took place up to the recent revision of settlement were transfers of villages to and from Gujrat and Shahpur owing to changes in the course of the Chenáb, the deep-stream of which has hitherto formed the boundary for purposes of jurisdiction as well as proprietary right. The changes that took place in 1892, owing to the extension of canal irrigation and the opening up of the Government waste in the Bár to cultivation, viz., the interchange of area with the Lahore, Montgomery and Jhang districts, and the splitting up of the unwieldy Háfizabad tahsil into two—the new tahsil having its head-quarters at Khángah Dográn in the heart of the Bár, have been alluded to in Chapter I.

The following account of the events of 1857 is taken from the "Punjab Mutiny Report":—

Gujranwála is a little civil station on the high road from Lahore to Pesháwar. As in all other places, the Deputy Commissioner was burdened with a body of mutinous soldiers as his treasury guard. In this case the men were of the 46th Native Infantry; they were quickly got rid of by an order to them to rejoin their corps at Siálkot. This was obeyed. Its operation left Captain Cripps, officiating Deputy Commissioner, with 7 horsemen and 35 foot police to defend three European officers, 2,00,000 rupees of Government treasure, and a jail full of convicts. This state of things could not last, especially as the treasury was an insecure building, and could not be held, as it possessed no well. The station might be attacked either by the three native regiments from Siálkot or by the four native regiments from Lahore. It lay between the two places, and junction of the mutinous brigades might reasonably be expected. To avert danger as far as possible, an old tomb and its circumjacent garden were fortified, provisions were thrown in, and the treasure was sent into Lahore. Recruits were called for from the people, and they eagerly thronged in. During six months about 700 men were raised. From this body, however, the

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into three Punjab regiments ; 250 remained on duty at the station ; 100 were sent down as policemen to the North-Western Provinces ; and even while under training the whole body was used as ferry guards, jail guards, and escorts. Early in July, the Deputy Commissioner hastened away to Gujrat, 35 miles off, on the news of the Jhelum mutiny. There he mounted his 100 men on camels, and went away another journey of 35 miles, to the very bank of the Jhelum. He learnt there that the Jhelum mutiny had ended, and on his hasty march back he was informed that a formidable one had broken out at Siálkot, only 35 miles from his own station. He hurried back to Gujranwála, but found, to his satisfaction, that it had not been threatened, the men having gone a different way. In the end of September, Captain Cripps was called to traverse the southern part of his district, which abuts on the *bár*, as the Kharrals had risen, and might be expected to attack some large towns under his jurisdiction. Again a forced march brought a body of the Sikh levies under his personal command to the suspected districts ; and the people, if they had any evil intentions, were overawed. Order continued to reign throughout that territory. In October, Colonel Clarke took charge of the district, and Captain Cripps was transferred to Ferozepore on the appointment of Major Marsden to Gugera. The people of Gujranwála seemed to have been very well affected throughout, and the six per cent. loan gained considerable accessions from the moneyed men of the country towns.

Attitude of the
Sikhs during the
mutiny.

The events of the mutiny, though their direct effect on the district was slight, had however a considerable indirect effect in strengthening our rule and in reconciling and binding up with it the Sikh population whose attitude since the annexation of the Punjab had been one of sullen acquiescence.

The disbandment of the Sikh armies after the battle of Gujrat had thrown out of employment thousands of sturdy Sikh soldiers who were unwilling to turn their swords into ploughshares, and the complicity of the Sikh Sardárs in the rebellion had led to the loss of their honours and emoluments.

The presence of these two classes in the district might prove an element of serious danger if the mutiny were successful in Hindustán, and spread to the Punjab. The bold and masterly policy which associated the lately defeated and disbanded Sikh forces with the support of our cause, and employed them as a weapon of offence against the Hindustáni rebels, thereby removing a local source of danger and providing them with congenial and remunerative employment, is a matter of history. The Sikhs of this district promptly responded to the call for levies, and their Sardárs now found the opportunity of proving their loyalty to our rule, of winning back some of their lost dignities and emoluments, and of dealing a blow at the hated Purbia troops who had so lately helped to defeat them.

Among those who were the first to take the field and whose services against the rebels were most distinguished were :—

- (1) Sardár Jowáhir Singh, the son of Hari Singh Nalwa, who, as Resáldár of the 1st Sikh Cavalry, served with a gallantry and devotion worthy of his father's son, was 18 times engaged with the enemy, received the order of British India for his services in the field, and at the close of the war was rewarded with the grant of a *jágír* of Rs. 1,200, one-half for life and one-half in perpetuity.

- (2) Of the Mán family, Jowála Singh, the eldest son of Fateh Singh, was killed at Lucknow. Anúp Singh, the eldest son of Jodh Singh, entered the 1st Sikh Cavalry, afterwards known as Probyn's Horse when it was first raised in August 1857, was present at the fall of Delhi and the capture of Lucknow. In that gallant regiment, Anúp Singh distinguished himself by his cool and determined courage, and during the campaign was four times wounded and had three horses killed under him. Ganda Singh, the second son of Sher Singh, Mán, who joined the same regiment, was killed in the Hindustán campaign and Gurdit Singh, his younger brother, was several times wounded in the field.

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Attitude of the Sikhs during the mutiny.

- (3) Bhág Singh, Hasanwália, of Rámnagar, son of Atar Singh, also served with credit as a Jamadár of Irregular Horse and was rewarded with the grant of a pension and small *jágír*.

The following families who had stood faithful in 1849 again showed their loyalty by service in the field during the mutiny:—

Sardár Jodh Singh, Varáich, of Ruriála, who was in an influential position at Amritsar, assisted in the enrolment of Sikh levies, and took part with the Deputy Commissioner, Mr. Cooper, C.B., in the pursuit of the Meeán Meer mutineers and their destruction at Ajnála. Sardár Mán Singh, the youngest brother of Jodh Singh, was one of the first to join Major Hodson at Delhi with a troop of cavalry raised by himself. He assisted in the capture of the king of Delhi, and the capture and execution of the three princes. Thence he returned to Lahore, and raising 500 recruits rejoined his regiment in time to take part in the capture of Lucknow. For these services and his conduct in the subsequent operations in Hindustán, where he was twice wounded, Mán Singh was rewarded with the Order of Merit and the grant of *jágírs* in Oudh and the Punjab. Harsa Singh, the son of Jodh Singh, served with credit through the same campaign as Resáldár of the 9th Bengal Lancers.

General Harsukh Rai, of Háfizabad, and the Dewaus of Eminabad, Karm Chand, Hari Chand and Nahál Chand also served in the field, and Hari Chand who commanded a contingent of Jammu troops before Delhi died of cholera.

Of the Muhammadan tribes several members of the Bhatti and Chatha clans, of whom Rahmat Khan of Pindi Bhattián, Khuda Bakhsh of Ahmadanagar, were the most distinguished, attached themselves to General Nicholson's standard and served in the moveable column which crushed the scattered bodies of mutinous Hindustánis in the Punjab, and contributed so largely to the fall of Delhi.

Attitude of the Muhammadan tribes.

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Effect of the mutiny.

The effect of the mutiny was therefore to heal old sores and reconcile old feuds. As has been well remarked in the Mutiny Report of Gurdáspur district:—

“The general enlistment was most popular, as it was among the most effective measures adopted by the Government, and contributed in a vast degree to link the popular feeling in this part of the country with the British cause. A mutual interest and sympathy was created to support that cause which had now become common, deep and earnest were the aspirations which vibrated in every homestead and evinced that the military spirit of the nation had been gratified, and afforded an assurance that its valiant sons would not be backward in vindicating the trust bestowed.”

History since annexation.

Since annexation the history of the district has been one of steady progress. The improvement of communications by the construction of the Grand Trunk Road in the early days of our rule, of the North-Western Railway in 1871-74, of the branch line from Wazirabad to Siálkot in 1885, has opened up new markets, brought it into touch with the great centres of trade, and thereby given a great stimulus to the growth of agricultural produce. The opening up of the great tracts of Government and village waste in the Háfizabad tahsil by the Chenáb Canal, which began to work in 1888, is likely to prove even a more potent factor in promoting the prosperity of the district, and has even already brought some 150,000 acres of waste land under the plough. The full effects of this new influence have yet to be seen, but when crowned by the construction of the railway now under construction through the heart of the Doáb from Wazirabad to Mooltan, it will revolutionise the district and raise it from a position of comparative unimportance to one of the most prosperous, and at least financially one of the most important, in the Province.

The following officers have since annexation administered the district in the capacity of Deputy Commissioner for the period marked opposite their names:—

NAME.	TERM OF OFFICE.			
	From		To	
Captain Clarke	May	1849	October	1849.
J. Morris	November	1849	December	1849.
B. M. Loveday				
W. Ford	January	1850	November	1850.
E. Fraser	December	1850	August	1851.
W. Forbes	September	1851	October	1851.
Major J. Clarke	November	1851	February	1856.
J. Morris	March	1856	October	1856.
Captain J. S. Tighe	November	1856	December	1856.
Captain J. M. Cripps	January	1857	September	1857.
Colonel J. Clarke	September	1857	February	1858.
Captain J. W. R. Elliot	March	1858	November	1858.
Captain J. S. Tighe	December	1858		
Captain Elliot	January	1860	March	1860.

NAMES.	TERM OF OFFICE.	
	From	To
Mr. McMullen	April 1860
Captain Elliot	May 1860 ...	February 1861.
Mr. A. Brandreth	March 1861 ...	May 1862.
Captain Urmston	June 1862 ...	December 1862.
Mr. Powlett	December 1862 ...	October 1863.
Mr. A. Brandreth	November 1863 ...	February 1864.
Captain J. W. Bristow ...	February 1864 ...	May 1864.
Mr. A. Brandreth	May 1864 ...	May 1865.
Major H. P. Babbage ...	June 1865 ...	October 1865.
Mr. A. Brandreth	November 1865 ...	December 1865.
Major H. P. Babbage ...	January 1866 ...	October 1868.
Mr. A. Brandreth	November 1868 ...	February 1869.
Major H. P. Babbage ...	March 1869 ...	November 1870.
Mr. M. Macauliffe	October 1870 ...	January 1871.
Mr. O. Wood	January 1871 ...	February 1871.
Mr. G. R. Elsmie	February 1871 ...	March 1871.
Mr. D. G. Barkley	March 1871 ...	8th May 1871.
Captain R. T. M. Lang ...	8th May 1871 ...	31st October 1871.
Mr. J. G. Cordery	1st November 1871 ...	December 1871.
Mr. D. G. Barkley	January 1872 ...	28th February 1872.
Major F. J. Millar	28th February 1872 ...	6th July 1872.
Mr. F. O. Channing	18th July 1872 ...	17th August 1872.
Major F. J. Millar	18th August 1872 ...	20th November 1873.
Mr. J. G. Cordery	20th November 1873 ...	22nd October 1875.
Major F. D. Harington ...	22nd October 1875 ...	5th June 1876.
Mr. A. R. Bulman	5th June 1876 ...	29th March 1878.
Mr. T. W. H. Talbort ...	29th March 1878 ...	7th April 1879.
Mr. A. R. Bulman	7th April 1879 ...	4th August 1879.
Captain A. S. Roberts ...	5th August 1879 ...	4th November 1879.
Mr. A. R. Bulman	5th November 1879 ...	15th March 1881.
Mr. J. W. Gardiner	15th March 1881 ...	30th June 1881.
Major A. S. Roberts	30th June 1881 ...	7th August 1881.
Colonel F. J. Millar	8th August 1881 ...	11th September 1881.
Major A. S. Roberts	12th September 1881 ...	29th November 1881.
Mr. H. W. Steel	30th November 1881 ...	9th April 1882.
Mr. C. P. Bird	10th April 1882 ...	19th May 1882.
Mr. A. R. Bulman	20th May 1882 ...	19th March 1883.
Mr. M. Macauliffe	20th March 1883 ...	10th June 1883.
Mr. R. W. Trafford	11th June 1883 ...	8th June 1884.
Major W. J. Parker	9th June 1884 ...	25th October 1884.
Major H. M. Wood	26th October 1884 ...	8th March 1885.
Mr. J. G. Silcock	9th March 1885 ...	4th September 1885.
Mr. G. Hughes	5th September 1885 ...	16th October 1885.
Mr. J. G. Silcock	10th October 1885 ...	10th November 1885.
Mr. H. W. Steel	11th November 1885 ...	6th February 1887.
Mr. G. Knox	7th February 1887 ...	21st April 1887.
Major R. Bartholomew ...	22nd April 1887 ...	13th June 1888.
Mr. E. D. Maclagan	14th June 1888 ...	23rd September 1888.
Major R. Bartholomew ...	29th September 1888 ...	29th February 1889.
Mr. G. Smyth	1st March 1889 ...	18th March 1889.
Mr. D. C. J. Ibbetson ...	19th March 1889 ...	9th December 1889.
Lieutenant C. S. De Butts	10th December 1889 ...	18th January 1890.
Martindale.		
Mr. D. C. J. Ibbetson ...	19th January 1890 ...	5th April 1890.
Mr. M. F. O'Dwyer	6th April 1890 ...	25th July 1890.
Lieutenant F. P. Young ...	26th July 1890 ...	21st November 1890.
Mr. D. C. J. Ibbetson ...	22nd November 1890 ...	17th August 1891.
Lieutenant G. C. Beadon ...	18th August 1891 ...	2nd December 1891.
Mr. H. S. Smith	3rd December 1891 ...	3rd February 1892.

Chapter II.

History.

List of District
Officers.

NAMES.	TERM OF OFFICE.	
	From	To
Mr. J. G. M. Rennie ...	4th February 1892 ...	22nd March 1892.
Lieutenant G. C. Beadon	23rd March 1892 ...	23rd May 1892.
Mr. W. C. Renouf ...	24th May 1892 ...	23rd June 1892.
Lieutenant G. C. Beadon	24th June 1892 ...	23rd October 1892.
Lieutenant F. P. Young	24th October 1892 ...	7th November 1892.
Captain C. S. De Butis Martindale.	8th November 1892 ...	16th December 1892.
Colonel R. T. M. Lang ...	17th December 1892 ...	25th March 1893.
Mr. A. Bridges ...	26th March 1893 ...	22nd November 1893.
Colonel C. F. Massy ...	23rd November 1893 ...	14th December 1893.
Lieutenant C. P. Egerton	15th December 1893 ...	19th March 1894.
Mr. M. F. O'Dwyer ...	20th March 1894 ...	1st July 1894.
Lieutenant F. P. Young	2nd July 1894 ...	3rd October 1894.
Mr. M. F. O'Dwyer ...	4th October 1894 ...	Up to date.

Of these, the names which are still fresh in the minds of the people are those of Major Clarke, who held charge for about five years from 1851 to 1856, who helped to compose the troubles that followed on the second Sikh war, and settle the people in the soil, and Mr. A. Brandreth, whose name is cherished by high and low for his benevolence and broad sympathies, as well as for the many material improvements he effected in sinking tanks and wells, establishing schools, opening out new roads, and generally contributing to the welfare of the district.

Major Babbage and Mr. A. R. Bulman, both of whom were attached to the district for a considerable period, are also remembered for their knowledge of the people and interest in their welfare. With the above exceptions no officers were left long enough in the district to leave their mark on it. Indeed the district has been particularly unfortunate, especially of late years in the frequent changes of officers—there have been no less than 20 changes during the last five years—which not only prevent the people knowing their officers and the officers knowing their people, but have retarded the progress of the many schemes of utility which have been started by one Deputy Commissioner but lost sight of or pushed on in a lukewarm manner by his successors. Few officers, who know that their tenure of a district is likely to be short, care to do more than keep pace with the current and routine work, and many important schemes, such as the extension of irrigation from the Deg by means of dams and sluices, the improvement of communications, the development of the *takávi* system, the repression of illicit distillation, the extension of arboriculture, &c., &c., have in consequence been shirked or shelved. Now that the creation of a fourth tahsíl, and the colonisation of the Bár tract, have made the district a more important one from an administrative point of view, and that the revenue administration has been

complicated by the purely fluctuating system imposed in the newly colonised villages, and the semi-fluctuating system sanctioned for the canal-irrigated villages of Hafizabad and Khan-gah Dohran, it will be impossible to work it properly unless the officers in charge are left there long enough to grasp all the details of the work, and understand and take an interest in the people.

Some conception of the development of the district since it came into our hands may be gathered from Table No. II, which gives some of the leading statistics as far as they are available for the years 1853-54, the year of the regular settlement, 1868-69, the revised settlement, 1873-74, 1878-79, 1885-86 and 1892-93. As compared with 1853-54 it appears that within 40 years population has increased 45 per cent., the cultivated area by 75 and the irrigated area by 53 per cent., the land revenue by 40 per cent. The figures in Statement No. II may not always be strictly comparable, their basis not always being the same from one period to another, but they may be accepted as showing in general terms the nature and extent of the advance made.

Chapter II.

History.

List of District Officers.

General develop-
ment since annexation.



CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

SECTION A.—STATISTICAL.

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.
Distribution of
population.

Table No. V gives separate statistics for each tahsíl and for the whole district of the distribution of population over towns and villages, over area, and among houses and families; while the number of houses in each town is shown in Table No. XLIII. The statistics for the district as a whole give the following figures. Further information will be found in Chapter II of the Census Report of 1881:—

Percentage of total population who live in villages ...	{ Persons	91.0
	{ Males	91.2
	{ Females	90.8
Average rural population per village	531.0
Average total population per village and town	581.0
Number of villages per 100 square miles	43.0
Average distance from village to village, in miles	1.6
Density of population per square mile of	{ Total area	{ Total population	236.0
		{ Rural population	215.0
	{ Cultivated area	{ Total population	519.0
		{ Rural population	470.0
{ Culturable area	{ Total population	281.0	
	{ Rural population	256.0	
Number of resident families per occupied house	{ Villages	1.43
	{ Towns	1.3
Number of persons per occupied house	{ Villages	6.98
	{ Towns	6.82
Number of persons per resident family	{ Villages	4.88
	{ Towns	4.32

The population figures are those of the census of 1891, the area figures are taken from the Revenue Report for 1893-94. The population has increased probably by about 25,000 in the interval since 1891, chiefly in the Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn tahsils, owing to the settlement of colonists in the Government waste, and the influx of tenants from other districts attracted by canal cultivation. The district cannot be considered densely populated, the average density of the total population being only 236, and of the rural population 215 to the square mile, against 238 and 211, respectively, at the census of 1881. Nor is population increasing more rapidly than the means of subsistence. The incidence of the total population is now only 516 and of the rural population 470 per square mile of cultivation against 645 and 570 in 1881. The rural incidence in the Wazírabad tahsíl, 614 per square mile, is rather high, and there is little available land to provide for the rapidly increasing mouths, but in Gujránwála, 495 per square mile, and Háfizabad, 387 per square mile, it is low, and in the latter tahsíl at least is likely to fall still lower, as cultivation is increasing more rapidly than population.

The following remarks in the increase of population between 1881 and 1891 are taken from the Census Report for the district :—

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.
Distribution of
population.

“ The increase of population stands as follows in ratio per mile :—

Tahsil.	Persons.	Males.
Gujránwála	74	78
Wazírabad	83	119
Háfízabad	207	229
Total	119	136

“ The fluctuating population has not been shown separately in the tables. But a comparison between the figures for persons and males shows at once where they have affected the totals. In Wazírabad there are believed to have been some 10,000 working on the Chenáb weir and canal, and the deduction of this number reduces the rate to 77 or about the same as in Gujránwála. In Háfízabad the extraordinary increase is due to the opening of the Chenáb Canal and the consequent breaking up of a large area of virgin soil. Many of the immigrants have been drawn from these two tahsils and have reduced their rates of increase. If it had not been for the epidemic of fever which ravaged the district in the autumn of 1891, the increase in population would have been very much larger.”

The number of deaths returned in that year was 53,031, of which 47,169 were put down to fever, while the average number of death for the five years 1888-92 was only 31,803, of which 25,365 were due to fever.

Table No. VI shows the principal districts and States with which the district has exchanged population, the number of immigrants and emigrants with details of sex. Further details will be found in Table No. XI and the supplementary abstracts 64 and 65, and 77—80 appended to the Census Report of 1891. The details by tahsils cannot be obtained from the present census returns.

The whole subject is discussed at length in Chapter X of the Census Report for 1891.

The total gain and loss to the district by migration is shown in the margin. The total number of residents born out of the district is 70,362, of whom 36,643 are males and 33,714 females; the number of people born in the district and living in other parts of the Punjab is 77,662, of whom 39,045 are males and 38,617 are females.

Detail.	Gain.	Loss.
Persons	102	113
Males	97	103
Females	109	124

Proportion per
1,000 of the popu-
lation.

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Proportion per
1,000 of the popu-
lation.

The districts to which migration is most common, are in order of importance, Siálkot, Gujrá't, Jhang, Lahore, Shahpur, all of which are conterminous with Gujrá'nwála, while the districts from which most emigrants are received in like order are Lahore, Siálkot, Gujrá't, Shahpur, Jhang. The subject is thus referred to in the district Census Report :—

"Wives are chiefly brought from Siálkot and Shahpur, the former skirts the whole eastern edge of the district; why the latter should have an advantage in the matter over Gujrá't I cannot conceive. The fact that the portion of the Jhang district which touches our border is chiefly uninhabited waste, accounts for the paucity of immigrants from that district."

Of the four types of migration defined in Chapter X of the Census Report as temporary, periodic, permanent, reciprocal, the types most prevalent in this district are the latter two. The "permanent" migration, *viz.*, where over-crowding or distress on the one hand, or physical or political advantages on the other, drive away from one district and attract to another people who settle down permanently on the land, accounts to a large extent for the excess of immigration from over emigration to Siálkot, which, as compared with Gujrá'nwála, is a densely populated and congested district. Some of the excess is however due to the temporary migration of large numbers of labourers to the Chenáb Canal and weir works.

It is however since the census of 1891 that the permanent immigration of colonists from Siálkot, Amritsar, Jullundur, Hoshiárpur, Umballa, Ludhiána has been established on a firm footing, and the full results of this movement within the decade as revealed in the next census will be a most interesting study. "Reciprocal" migration at present accounts for most of the emigration from, and immigration into, the district. The nature of this movement is well explained in para. 243 of the Census Report.

"There is of course reciprocal migration of an ordinary kind always going on between any two adjoining tracts, but the term has been especially applied to that migration of women which is occasioned by the marriage customs obtaining in the east or more Hinduized part of the Province. According to these customs the man must of course marry within his own caste, but he is forbidden to marry girls from any sub-division of the caste with which he is already through his father or mother closely connected; and as he generally is living in the midst of villages inhabited by the clan or tribe to which his father belongs, he must go further afield for his bride. Custom too forbids a marriage within a village which is in actual or close proximity to his own, so the bride may not come from any of them. And the idea has so far developed that the respectability of the marriage is gauged more or less by the distance from which the bride is brought. The result of these regulations and feelings is that the brides are generally sought from a reasonable distance. And speaking very roughly, for the purely administrative boundaries of districts have no appreciable effect on the custom, the brides may be said to be sought not within, but beyond the borders of, the district in which the intending bridegroom lives."

The figures in the margin show the population of the district

Chapter III, A.

	Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Density per square mile.
Actuals.	1855	550,922	306,498	244,424	147
	1868	616,892	333,605	283,287	207
	1881	690,169	379,034	311,135	238
	1891				228·7
Percent-ages.	1868 on 1855 ...	111·97	108·86	115·90	141
	1881 on 1868 ...	111·9	113·6	109·8	115
	1891 on 1881 ...				112

Statistical.

as it stood at the enumerations of 1855, 1868, 1881, and 1891. Unfortunately the boundaries of the districts have changed so much since the census of 1855 that it is impossible to compare the figures. The

Proportion per 1,000 of the population.

population returned for the district as it then stood was 553,383. But between 1855 and 1868 an area of some 303 square miles was transferred to the Lahore district, and no statistics of the population thus transferred are now available. The density (147) returned for 1855 was based upon an estimated area of 3,752 square miles. Apparently this was some 800 square miles in excess of the truth, and the density should have been 187, which would make the increase between 1855 and 1868 only 11 per cent., or less than that between 1868 and 1881. But it is almost certain that the tract transferred to Lahore was more thickly populated than the remainder of the district; since it includes a larger proportion of riverain and a smaller of *bár*, so that 187 is probably higher than the actual density.

It will be seen that the rate of increase between 1881 and 1891 is exactly the same as that between 1868 and 1881, but that while in the former period the rate of increase in females considerably exceeded that of males, in the latter period the process was reversed. As the total rate of increase in the 13 years 1868 to 1881 was the same as the increase in the 10 years 1881-91, it follows that the *annual* rate of increase in the latter period was greater than in the former. Between 1868 and 1881 the annual increase per 10,000 of the population had been 65 for males, 114 for females and 87 for persons, at which rate the male population would have been doubled in 106·3 years, the female in 61·1 years, and the total population in 79·7 years. It was calculated that at the same rate of increase, the population in 1891 would be 670,000 and the old Gazetteer went on to remark :—

“ Nor is it improbable that the rate of increase will be sustained. Part of the increase is probably apparent only, and due to increased accuracy of enumeration at each succeeding census, a good test of which is afforded by the percentage of males to persons, 55·82 in 1868 and 54·08 in 1881; but as soon as the projected canal is completed, it is almost certain that the loss which the district has suffered by excess of emigration over immigration will be more than restored to it by a large influx of immigrants from the crowded districts to the north (south-east).”

Should the same rate of increase be maintained for the decade 1891-1901, the population in the latter year will be about 772,000. In all probability the rate of increase will be

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Proportion per
1,000 of the popula-
tion.

much higher as emigration will be checked by the great increase in the means of subsistence, while immigration, which even now is proceeding rapidly, will be encouraged by the same cause.

It must however be borne in mind that the tendency of canal irrigation, especially in years of heavy rainfall, is to make the climate more unhealthy, send up the death-rate and reduce the birth-rate. This fact is well brought out in the birth and death statistics of the decade, quoted further on, and it will no doubt operate as an influence counteracting the natural increase due to excess of births over deaths. It does not however seem over-sanguine to estimate that the population at next census will exceed 800,000, and 850,000 will probably be nearer the mark.

The urban population has decreased from 71,994 in 1881 to 62,109 in 1891. The falling off is accounted for by the exclusion of Jálalpur, Pindi Bhattián, Háfizabad and Sohdra which have ceased to be municipalities. The urban population is now comprised within the six towns of Gujránwála, Wazírabad, Rám Nagar, Eminabad, Akálgarh, Kila Didár Singh, and the population of these has increased from 59,196 to 62,109. The rate of increase per cent. for the urban population—4·9—is however very low as compared with that of the rural population, 12·6. All the towns except Gujránwála, which is becoming a great trade centre, and where the increase 17·5 per cent. has been very large, and Kila Didár Singh, where it is nominal, show a falling off in population. This is probably due to the depression of the local and the carrying trades and the concentration of the mercantile classes and of capital in the great commercial centres, which the development of railways and the consequent facilities for through trade are constantly tending to produce.

The following remarks in para. 17 of the Census Report for 1891 elucidate the point still further.

“The railway, though it prejudices the smaller towns from which it diverts trade, has no doubt the result on the whole of increasing the urban population. It seems probable that the reason why the rural population has increased at a faster rate than the urban is to be found in the nature of the trade which has flourished most within the last decade. The export of the cereals and pulses, and more especially of wheat, has increased very markedly of late years, and forms by far the most striking feature of the present trade of the country. But the higher prices involved by this large export of the food staples of the country have naturally tended to favour the increase of the rural population who both produce and consume the article, rather than that of the towns people who consume it only, and has thus largely checked the immigration into the towns which we should otherwise have expected.”

The population of individual towns at the respective enumerations are shown under their several headings in Chapter VI.

Inclusive of the towns, the variation in population by tahsils

Chapter III. A.

Tahsil.	Total population.		Percentage of population of 1891 on that of 1881.
	1891.	1881.	
Gujránwála ...	269,166	250,720	107·4
Wazirabad ...	183,606	169,568	108·3
Háfizabad ...	237,397	169,604	120·7
Total District*	690,169	618,892	111·9

since 1881 is shown in the margin. The following remarks on the migration to and from Gujránwála are taken from the Census Report:—"Though the density of population on total

Statistical. Proportion per 1,000 of the population.

area is exceedingly small, this district includes a large area of arid pastures which have at present no irrigation, and the population per square mile of cultivation is exceedingly high. Consequently it gives to all districts, except Siálkot and Gujrát, in which the pressure of population is even greater than its own, and especially it sends population to the newly irrigated lands in Lahore. The exchange with Siálkot and Gujrát seems to be largely reciprocal. In other cases it is permanent, except the emigration to Pindi, Jhelum, Mooltan and Pesháwar, which is naturally, to a great extent, temporary, being due to the presence of cantonments or the temporary demand for labour. The immigration from Kashmir is said to be for the most part of old standing."

Table No. XI shows the total number of births and deaths registered in the district for the five years, from 1888 to 1892.

	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	Average.
Males	35	40	83	32	47	47
Females	37	46	90	31	50	51
Persons	36	40	87	32	48	49

As regards the accuracy of vital statistics generally, Mr. Maclagan says in para. 26 of the Census Report:—

"The birth and death statements on the other hand, which if exact, would serve as the best possible guide, are based on the reports made by the village watchmen to the police, and though they are improving in accuracy there is still grave cause for refusing to rely on them. As between district and district (except with regard to the frontier) they form a very fair basis of comparison, the standard of accuracy being fairly uniform in all districts east of the Indus."

On this subject Mr. Maclagan remarks generally:—

"The relation of births to deaths too is probably fairly correctly recorded, for there is no well marked tendency to conceal births more than deaths, or vice versa. As regards the absolute value of the figures however, I believe them to be utterly unreliable. On the frontier this is palpably the case, for the birth and

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Statistical.

Proportion per
1,000 of the popula-
tion.

death-rates are and continue to be abnormally low. And in the rest of the Province those who have devoted most attention to the subject are the most convinced of the utter inadequacy of the vital returns."

However the figures may err as regards absolute accuracy, they are admittedly a safe enough guide as regards variations from year to year. The figures for the period 1882-99 quoted above bring into prominence the mortality towards the end of the cycle 1889, 1890 and 1892. In 1890 it reached the phenomenal figure of 87 per 1,000, or a death-rate five times as high as that of London. The abnormally high mortality of unhealthy years is due, almost entirely, to epidemics of cholera or fever. The ravages of cholera when it appears are generally most disastrous in the three hot months, April, May and June, preceding the rains; while malarial fever is the consequence of heavy monsoon rains, as in 1890 and 1892, and is therefore nearly always at its worst in the autumn months, September, October and November, while if a cold and wet winter supervenes, as in 1890 and 1892, it is followed by pneumonia which carries off great numbers in the winter months. The statistics in Tables Nos. XI A and XI B will illustrate the above remarks. Such further details as to birth and death-rates in individual towns, as are available, will be found in Table No. XLIV and under the heading of the several towns in Chapter VI.

Age, sex and civil
condition.

The figures for age, sex and civil condition are given in great detail in Tables Nos. VII to VIII of the Census Report of 1891, while the numbers of the sexes for each religion will be found in Table No. VII, appended to the present work. The age statistics must be taken subject to limitations, which will be found fully discussed in Chapter V of the Census Report. Their value rapidly diminishes as the numbers dealt with become smaller; and it is unnecessary here to give actual figures or any statistics for tahsils. The following figures show the distribution by age of every 10,000 of the population according to the census figures:—

—	0—1	1	2	3	4	0—4	5—9	10—14	15—19
Persons ...	367	245	278	283	318	1,492	1,477	992	1,107
Males ...	345	234	268	276	315	1,438	1,463	1,031	1,112
Females ...	394	257	291	293	322	1,557	1,495	945	1,100
—	20—24	25—29	30—34	35—39	40—44	45—49	50—54	55—59	Over 60
Persons ...	981	921	593	669	354	506	184	392	333
Males ...	971	889	591	633	357	513	195	420	356
Females ...	994	960	596	707	351	498	170	359	305

Table No. XII shows the number of insane, blind, deaf, mutes and lepers in the district. The proportion per 10,000 of either sex for each of these infirmities is shown in the margin. By comparison with the figures of the census of 1881 it would appear that there is a considerable decrease not only in the proportion but in the number of

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.
Infirmities.

Infirmities.	Males.	Females.
Insane	4	2
Blind	36	37
Deaf and dumb	9	4
Leprous	1	...

persons afflicted with these infirmities. The improvement may be partly due to differences of classification, but it is probable that the extension of medical relief by dispensaries, &c., is to be credited with part of it. Tables Nos. XII—XV A of the Census Report for 1891 give further details of the age and caste of the infirm.

The figures given below show the numbers and composition of the Christian population, and the respective numbers of those who returned their birth-place and their language as European. They are taken from Tables Nos. X, XI A, Part II of the Census Report for 1891:—

DETAILS.		Males.	Females.	Persons.
Races of Christian population.	Europeans and Americans ...	42	31	73
	Eurasians	19	15	34
	Native Christians	1,346	900	2,246
	Total Christians ...	1,407	946	2,353
Languages.	English... ..	58	47	105
	Other European languages ...	1	...	1
	Total Do. ...	59	47	106
Birth- place.	British Isles	17	4	21
	Other European countries ...	1	...	1
	Total Do. ...	18	4	22

The increase in the number of Native Christians since 1881, when the number was only 81, has been very large and is due to the activity of the American Presbyterian Mission at Gujranwála. There is a considerable Native Christian population in Gujranwála city, and many of the large villages in Gujranwála and Wazirabad have small colonies of Christians. These, as a rule, belong to the artisan or menial class. Among the great commercial and agricultural classes, Christianity has made little progress. The distribution of Christians by tahsils is shown in Table No. VII. They are nearly all in the two eastern tahsils. Gujranwála and Wazirabad.

Chapter III, B.

SECTION B.—SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS LIFE.

Social and Religious Life.

General statistics and distribution of religions.

Table No. VII shows the number in each tahsil and in the whole district who follow each religion, as ascertained in the census of 1891, and Table No. XLIII gives similar figures for towns. Tables Nos. VII and VIII of the Report of that census give further details on the subject. The distribution of every 10,000 of the population by religions is shown in the margin. The limitations subject to which these figures must be taken, and especially the rule followed in the classification of Hindús are discussed in Part I, Chapter III of the Census Report. The proportion of the three principal Musalmán sects in every 1,000 of the Musalmán population is shown in the margin. The sects of the Christian population are given in Table A, Part II of the Census Report, but the figures, for reasons explained in Part I, Chapter III, para. 39 of the Report, are very imperfect.

Religion.	Distribution per 10,000.
Hindu	2,409
Sikb	656
Jain	11
Musalmán	6,890
Christian	34

Sect.	Distribution per 1,000.
Sunnís	961
Wahábís	6·07
Farázís	4
Shiabs	32·53

The chief sects among Native Christians in the district are the United Presbyterians and the Presbyterian Church of Scotland. The numbers of the former are returned as 1,567 and of the latter as 353. Table No. IX shows the religion of the major castes and tribes of the district, and therefore the distribution by caste of the great majority of the followers of each religion. A description of the great religions of the Punjab and their principal sects will be found in Chapter IV of the Census Report. The religious practice and belief of the district present no special peculiarities, and it would be out of place here to enter into any disquisition on the general question. The distribution of religions by tahsils can be gathered from the figures of Table No. VII; and regarding the population, as a whole, no more detailed information as to locality is available. But it may be said broadly that, excluding the mercantile classes and their priests, who are of course scattered all over the district and most numerous in the towns, the Hindús and Sikhs are found in the south and east in tahsil Gujránwála and the adjoining tract of Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn, and the Musalmáns in the north and west.

Religious gatherings.

Mári Lachhman.	Badoki.	some importance at places in
Emiuabad.	Kotla Pírán.	the district, of these by far
Khángah Shah	Rám Nagar.	the most important is the
Rahmán.	Jalálpur.	religious fair at Dhaunkal
Wazírabad.	Khángah Dográn.	near Wazírabad, at which
Dhaunkal.	Pindi Bhattián.	it has been estimated that as many as 100,000 people assemble.

It lasts during the month of Hár and is frequented by Hindús and Muhammadans alike. The nucleus of the gathering is the shrine of Sakhi Sarwar, the famous Punjab saint, in the village which is associated with some of his most remarkable miracles, and attracts pilgrims not only from the adjoining Punjab districts but from Jammu and Kashmír.

Chapter III, B.
Social and Religious Life.
Religious gatherings.

The offerings at the shrine are believed to amount to Rs. 2,500 per annum, and these are divided rateably among the owners of one of the *pattis* of the village according to their revenue liability, quite irrespective of class or creed.

The fair next in importance is the Baisákhí Fair at Eminabad. This also had a religious origin having grown up round the shrine, known as the "Rohri Sáhib," associated with some of the austerities of Guru Nának. The shrine is regarded with great veneration by the Sikhs and richly endowed by Government. The fair has now, however, developed into a great business gathering. A large cattle fair has for years been held here under the management of the district authorities, and within the last few years a horse fair has also been started.

The fair at Pindi Bhattián is of recent origin, but is rapidly growing into importance. It is the meeting place of the various bodies of pilgrims on their way to the shrine of Sakhi Sarwar in the Dera Gházi Khan district. All the important fairs have now been taken under the management of the District Board which levies fees and is responsible for the sanitary and other arrangements.

The Siálkot Mission of the Church of Scotland established a branch at Wazirabad in 1863, and the usual methods of working have been more or less carried out in the city and in the adjoining locality. Until 1879 the work was carried on chiefly by native agents, and from 1879 to 1882 Mr. W. C. Bailey was in charge as a lay missionary. Since the latter date this station has had no European there. As the mission work began to develop and no ordained missionary was available to settle there, it was thought advisable by the mission to locate a native minister in Wazirabad, and in December 1888 Mr. Hákim Singh was appointed, and since that time has been in charge. There are 6 Scripture readers, 1 colporteur and 1 catechist working with him. On December 31st, 1893, the number of adherents of the Wazirabad Church was 496 adults and 376 children.

Wazirabad Mission.

In 1863 the Government School at Wazirabad was handed over to the mission. At the date of transfer there were 88 boys on the roll, and the Government grant allowed was Rs. 50 a month.

Wazirabad Mission School.

In 1883 the Government grant was Rs. 80 a month and Rs. 5 a month were contributed by the municipality. The fees amounted to above Rs. 55 a month, and the total monthly expenditure of the school with its two branches to about Rs. 217. So greatly has the school prospered since that time that

Chapter III, B. 1893-94 the grants earned from Provincial and Municipal Funds amounted to Rs. 2,676 and the tuitional fees realised during the same year to Rs. 2,512. The monthly expenditure is now about Rs. 550.

Social and Religious Life. Wazirabad Mission School.

In April 1887, when the services of the present Head Master Mr. L. Jeremy were engaged, the school was raised to the High Standard, but as the accommodation was inadequate it was not recognised by the Department as a High School till 1890 when the mission purchased a large and commodious building adjoining the main school (which is situated in the chief street near the centre of the city) at a cost of about Rs. 2,000. Consequently there is now ample accommodation for over 600 pupils. The main school building was transferred by Government with the school free of rent on condition that the mission should keep it in good repair. A boarding-house was opened in 1889 in connection with the school and has been very favourably reported on by the Inspector of Schools. During the last six years 28 boys have passed the Entrance Examination of the Punjab University. The Manager of the School is the Rev. Dr. Youngson of Siáلكot.

Hindu Girls' School of Wazirabad.

A Hindu Girls' School was established in 1890 by Miss Plumb, one of the Zenána Mission ladies of Siáلكot. At the close of the school year in February 1894, there were 69 girls on the roll with an average attendance of 53. The municipal grant for the year was Rs. 52-8-0 and the monthly expenditure about Rs. 30. Two girls have won scholarships by the Lower Primary Standard.

Wazirabad Mission Village Schools.

Besides these schools in the town there are eight small schools attached to them in the villages, where 113 children receive elementary education. The total number of scholars at present on the roll is 583, viz., 485 boys and 98 girls, composed of 49 Native Christian boys and 29 girls, 195 Hindu boys and 54 girls, 208 Musalmán boys, 33 Sikh boys, 15 girls. 121 boys and 17 girls are children of agriculturists, and 364 boys and 181 girls children of non-agriculturists.

Gujránwála American Mission.

The Siáلكot Mission of the United Presbyterian Church of North America opened work in Gujránwála city in 1863 under the direction of the Rev. J. S. Barr, D.D. A school for Hindús and Muhammadans was opened, which now ranks among the first schools of the Province. A Girls' School was also opened, which has won a notable place among Punjab schools. There are at present seven Americans, four ladies and three ministers, engaged in the mission work of the city and district. The whole time of one man is taken up with the city and school work, while the others devote their time to the villages and outlying district. In the district the work is partly educational, embracing some 22 Primary Schools, but largely pastoral. There are some 2,500 in the Christian communities scattered over the district. These communities are entirely from the sweeper class. In many places they are said to show encouraging advance from their former vice and degradation.

The Gujranwala Mission School* was started in 1867 by the Rev. J. S. Barr and soon earned a fixed grant of Rs. 40 per month, which in a couple of years was doubled. It was a High School from the beginning and prepared boys for the Entrance Examination of the Calcutta University, but with little success for some years. In 1870 the school opened a Middle Department and began to send up boys for the Middle School Examination. The grant was soon raised to Rs. 140 per month, and after some years it was again doubled. The grant earned by the school under the Punjab Education Code now averages Rs. 500 per month.

The school consists of one main school and three branches. The number of scholars on the rolls of the main school at the close of the year 1893-94 was 523, of these 4 were Native Christians, 265 Hindús, 46 Sikhs and 208 Muhammadans; 39 were children of agriculturists. The number on the rolls of the branch schools at the close of the same period was 139, comprising 19 Native Christians, 48 Hindús, 12 Sikhs, 39 Muhammadans and 21 others; 48 were children of agriculturists. In the year 1893-94 the grants received from Provincial and Municipal Funds and from other sources by both the main school and its branches was about Rs. 9,676, the income from fees was about Rs. 6,970 and the expenditure Rs. 16,645. The school has been very prosperous and successful and is of great value to the district. It has now for two years running, 1893 and 1894, won the Champion Cricket Belt of the Lahore Circle. The Rev. Mr. Porter of the American Mission at Gujranwala is the Manager of the School.

This school was started in 1868 under the superintendence of the Rev. J. S. Barr and Miss Calhoun. The progress was at first slow, and for many years only primary instruction was imparted. The numerical strength at the end of the school year 1893-94 was:—

Hindús	248
Muhammadans	54
Sikhs	55
Christians	5
Total	362

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Social and Religious Life.
Gujranwala Mission School.

Mission School
for Girls.

* The following account of the American Reformed Presbyterian Mission, Gujranwala, has been received from the Missionary in charge while this work was in the Press. Most of the members of this body seem to have separated off from the American Mission in 1894.

Missionary in Charge—Rev. Charles G. Scott, M. D.

Native Minister—Rev. J. W. Sweet.

Student of Theology and Assistant—Mr. H. L. Swift.

Besides the above—School teachers and workers.

The American Reformed Presbyterian Church was organized in Gujranwala in March 1894. At the time of organization its membership numbered 200 persons

Baptisms during the past year 235.

Adherents to the Church number 300.

Total number of Reformed Presbyterian Christian Community being about 300 persons.

There are also 5 Schools in operation for Christian boys and girls having about 200 scholars.

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Social and Religious Life.

Mission School for Girls.

The girls are generally daughters of persons in Government service or in professional or commercial occupations. None belong to the agricultural class.

Between 1885 and 1887 the school received much encouragement from Mrs. F. A. Steel, whose experience of matters relating to female education, and intimate knowledge of *zenána* life were invaluable aids in promoting the utility and popularity of the school. Since then its success has been assured. In 1892 the school was raised to the Middle Standard, and since then 12 girls have passed that test. The total expenditure in 1893-94 was Rs. 3,357. The school comes under the grant-in-aid system and during the year received a total grant of Rs. 748 from Municipal and Provincial Funds. The school is now among the foremost institutions of its kind in the Province. Besides the main school building there are several branch schools scattered over the city at convenient centres. From the above remarks it is clear that both as a Christianising and as an educational agency, the American Presbyterian Mission has had a wide-spread influence in the district. The growth of that influence is largely due to the efforts of the Rev. J. P. McKee, D.D., who was connected with the missionary and educational work at Gujránwála for over 20 years, and though he left the district in 1890 and has now returned to America, his name is still a household word among the people. Rarely has an outsider, whether official or non-official, succeeded to such an extent in obtaining an intimate acquaintance with all classes, and in winning their confidence and esteem. Rich and poor, Hindús and Muhammadans alike, regarded him as a counsellor and a friend, and his influence, always exercised quietly and unostentatiously, in allaying disputes, settling family quarrels, and generally in teaching the people to sink their jealousies and rivalries and live side by side in peace and amity was enormous, and is the more appreciated now that its want is felt.

Language.

Table No. VIII shows the numbers who speak each of the

Languages.	Proportion per 10,000 of population.
Hindustáni	40
Kashmíri	3
Punjabi	9,945
Pashtu	6
All Indian languages ...	9,998
Non-Indian languages ...	2

principal languages current in the district. More detailed information will be found in Table No. X of the Census Report for 1891, and the several languages are briefly discussed in Chapter IX of the same Report. The figures in the margin give the distribution of every 10,000 of the population by language omitting small figures.

Education.

Table No. XIII gives statistics of education as ascertained at the census of 1891 for each religion. The

Education.		Proportion per 10,000.
Males	Under instruction.	152
	Can read and write.	573
Females	Under instruction.	76
	Can read and write.	123

which have been already given, by

Details.	Boys.	Girls.
Europeans and Eurasians
Native Christians	1	...
Hindús	2,281	227
Musalmánés	1,746	148
Sikhs	566	119
Others
Children of agriculturists	1,463	14
Do. of non-agriculturists.	3,131	480

and western half of the district, and especially for the tracts inhabited by the Tárars, Bhatís and Virakhs :—

“ In an agricultural community such as we have in this district, the cultivator looks on his children as soon as they are strong enough to go afield, merely as so much increase to the labour at his command ; he never learnt to read and write himself, and does not see why his son should want more than he has ; his practical view of the matter is that the boy is much better helping to plough, hoe or weed, than perhaps idling away his time over books.”

Though the eastern half of the district, including all of the Wazirabad and most of the Gujranwála tahsil, has made considerable advances in the way of education since the above remarks were written, it is still the case that the great majority of those under instruction are the children of non-agriculturists, and that among the agricultural community as a body education has not yet taken firm root. One reason of this is that education is still regarded not so much as an advantage in itself, but as a means to an end, that end being employment under Government ; and as such employment has hitherto been practically monopolised by one class, which silently but effectually excluded all outsiders, the agriculturist has had no incentive to educate his son as service under Government was practically barred to him. Of late years something has been done to break down the monopoly and give the zamindárs some share of the spoils of office. This has given a stimulus to education amongst them, but it is to be regretted that as yet there is no sign of education being appreciated for its own sake. In fact an educated agriculturist is usually regarded with some suspicion by his

figures in the margin show the number educated among every 10,000 of each sex according to the census returns. Statistics regarding the attendance at Government and Aided Schools will be found in Table No. XXXVII. The distribution of scholars at these schools, exclusive of the Mission Schools, figures for religion and the occupation of their fathers as it stood in 1893-94 is shown in the margin. There are two vernacular lithographic presses at Gujranwála, but literary activity has not yet risen to the pitch of starting a vernacular newspaper. The following remarks of Captain Nisbet describing the attitude of the people of the district generally towards education still hold good for the southern

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Social and Religious Life.

credited with using his superior knowledge to gain an undue advantage over his neighbours in matters relating to land revenue payments, litigation, &c.

Food of the people.

The following note regarding the food of the people was furnished by the district authorities for the Famine Report of 1879 and still applies:—

“Wheat, *múng*, rice and *másh* form the staple food of the people of this district; but *moth*, *jowár*, maize, barley, gram, mixed grains, *kangni* and *chána* are also consumed by the lower classes. The table in the margin shows the estimated annual consumption of food grains by an agriculturist's family, consisting of a man and wife, two children, and an old person, taking 1½ sérs as the daily food of each man, 1 sér for the woman, and half a sér for each child. As a fact, the village peasants consume more than the above quantities. The usual

Food Grains.	Number of months.	Maunds.	Sérs.
Wheat flour	4	13	20
Maize	2	6	30
Goji of gram	2	6	30
Barley	2	6	30
Múng, moth and rice	2	6	30
Total	40	20

	Number of months.	Maunds.
Wheat	4	12
Maize	2	6
Goji of gram	2	6
Barley	2	6
Moth, múng and rice	2	6
Total	30

allowance of wheat is eight maunds a year; but for a part of the year they eat large quantities of turnips, carrots, and other vegetables. They eat three meals a day, at 9 A.M. (*chháwela*), at noon (*battewela*) and in the evening (*shám*). The traders and menials of the villages eat less than agriculturists, and omit the noon-day meal. The annual consumption, allowing one sér and one chiták for each man, 12 chitáks for the woman, and half a sér for each child, would be as shown in the margin. The towns people again eat less than the villagers. Allowing 12

chitáks for each man, 10 for the woman, and 8 for each child, the annual consumption of wheat, rice, and pulses would be 28 maunds and a half, exclusive of sweetmeats and vegetables. They too eat only in the morning and evening.”

To these remarks it may be added that in the Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn tahsils the outturn of maize is limited, and during some of the winter months the people eat coarse rice, *jowár* and *bájra* in its place. Rice and *múng* are consumed in large quantities in the villages irrigated by the Chenáb Canal. The increase in the area under wheat which has been so pronounced in the last 10 years, and the general rise in the standard of living, have made wheat the staple food to a much greater extent than formerly.

Poverty or wealth of the people.

It is impossible to form any satisfactory estimate of the wealth of the commercial and industrial classes. Table No. XXXIV gives statistics of the amount collected as income tax in

Year.	Number of assessees.	Total of tax.
1886-87 ...	892	Rs. 16,557
1891-92 ...	1,154	23,753
1892-93 ...	1,226	26,948
1893-94 ...	1,263	27,833

recent years, and the totals for 1886, the first year of its imposition in its present form, and the last three years are shown in the margin, but the numbers affected by the tax are small. In 1893 among the persons taxed were 16 legal practitioners, 15 brokers, 22 con-

tractors, 888 money-lenders, 120 merchants, 145 traders, 17 artisans and 14 house proprietors. It may be said generally that a very large proportion of the artisans in the towns are extremely poor, while their fellows in the villages are scarcely less dependent upon the nature of the harvest than are the agriculturists themselves; their fees usually taking the form of a fixed share of the produce, while even where this is not the case the demand for their products necessarily varies with the prosperity of their customers. Perhaps the leather workers should be excepted, as they derive considerable gain from the hides of the cattle which die in a year of drought, and which they divide with the village sweeper. It is probable, however, that of late years, owing to the demand for labour on the canal, railway, and other public works, the standard of prosperity among laborers and artisans has risen considerably; and this seems to be borne out by the statistics of the price of labour given in Table No. XXVII, from which it appears that in 1888-89 the minimum daily wages of skilled and unskilled labour which in preceding years had been three and two annas respectively rose to six annas and two annas six pies, and have continued at this point ever since. The retail prices of food grain as shown in Table No. XXVI have, it is true, been on the average rather higher of late years, but this is not of itself sufficient to explain so considerable a rise in the price of labour. It may appear a paradox, but the experience of the last few years shows it to be a fact, that the wages of unskilled labour, at least when employed in large bodies on public works, is lower in a year of scarcity and high prices than in a year of cheapness and plenty. In the bad years 1889-90 and 1891-92, thousands of laborers were found willing to work on the Chenáb Canal for three annas a day, which at the rate of prices then prevailing was barely enough for subsistence. But when the tide of prosperity returned in 1893 and 1894 and food became cheaper than at any time within the last 20 years, it was found that labour could only be attracted by increasing the rate of wages to four and five annas per diem. The obvious conclusion is that the village menials who forms the bulk of the canal laborers is driven to work outside not by the desire of gain but by the pressure of want. As long as his share of the harvest is sufficient to keep him and his family going for the year, high wages will not tempt him to leave his easy village life for outside work, however remunerative. The circumstances of the agricultural classes are discussed below at the end of Section D of this Chapter.

Chapter III, C.

Tribes, Castes
and Leading
Families.Poverty or wealth
of the people.

SECTION C.—TRIBES, CASTES AND LEADING FAMILIES.

Table No. IX gives the figures for the principal castes and tribes of the district, with details of sex and religion, while Table No. IX A shows the number of the less important castes. It would be out of place to discuss the local distribution of tribes and castes.

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Tribes, Castes,
and Leading
Families.

Statistics and
local distribution of
tribes and castes.

Many of them are found all over the Punjab, and most of them in many other districts, and their representatives in Gujránwála are distinguished by no local peculiarities. Some of the leading tribes, and especially those who are important as landowners or by position and influence, are briefly noticed in the following sections; and each caste will be found described in Chapter XI of the Census Report for 1891. The census statistics of caste were not compiled for tahsils, at least in their final form. It was found that an enormous number of mere clans or sub-divisions had been returned as castes in the schedules, and the classification of these figures under the main heads shown in the caste tables was made for districts only. Thus no statistics showing the local distribution of the tribes are available. But the general distribution of the more important land-owning tribes may be broadly described as follows:—The Virakhs hold a broad strip along the south-eastern border of the district; the country round Pindi Bhattián in the south-west is occupied by Bhatti Rájpúts; above them come the Lodikes, Tárars, and Chatthás (the last two along the river) in that order; the northern corner is held by the Chímás, while the centre of the district is in the hands of Sánsis, Varáich, Hanjra, Dhotar, and other Jats. The locality of the several holdings is more precisely defined in the description of each tribe. The following figures show the number of villages held, the revenue paid and the cultivated area occupied by the principal tribes of the district and the number of proprietors in each tribe. They are prepared from statistics given in Mr. O'Dwyer's Assessment Reports of the tahsils at the recent settlement.

Agricultural capacity of tribes.

Number.	NAME.	Number of villages.	Number of share-holders.	AREA.			Revenue before re-assessment.
				Cultivated.	Uncultivated.	Total.	
				Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.
1	Dhotar	12	556	11,788	5,068	16,856	17,055
2	Sekhu	16	681	11,171	1,624	12,795	9,144
3	Chíma	112½	6,723	78,590	43,551	122,141	97,115
4	Chatha	107½	3,719	62,232	69,917	132,149	58,562
5	Guraya	21	1,125	18,958	12,788	31,746	16,308
6	Sánsi	8	310	5,180	2,341	7,521	5,069
7	Tárar	53	1,398	28,975	40,368	69,343	251
8	Malhi	11	368	4,880	7,525	12,405	3,491
9	Varáich	43½	2,320	34,879	17,228	52,107	38,301
10	Cháhil	5	379	5,022	1,204	6,226	4,917
11	Hanjrás and Jags ...	33½	1,334	21,488	22,099	43,587	13,364
12	Mán	7	136	5,209	2,811	8,020	5,140
13	Buttar	6	334	4,669	1,270	5,939	5,948
14	Kharral	42½	1,264	25,468	37,726	63,194	11,360
15	Chandhar	11½	447	3,802	6,708	10,510	2,846
16	Virakh	119½	7,611	104,665	143,414	248,079	62,067

Agricultural capacity of tribes—concluded.

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Statistics and
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Number.	NAME.	Number of villages.	Number of share-holders.	AREA.			Revenue before re-assessment.
				Cultivated.	Uncultivated.	Total.	
				Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	
17	Bhatti	81½	3,177	47,555	112,575	160,130	29,408
18	Awán	7	200	3,463	4,234	7,697	1,709
19	Baora	9	271	4,177	7,397	11,574	2,509
20	Lubána	7	392	3,906	8,231	12,137	3,740
21	Bhun	7½	143	5,459	5,399	10,858	4,859
22	Kokara	6¾	30	4,357	1,302	5,659	4,496
23	Kaler	4½	254	3,698	1,970	5,668	4,679
24	Bhindar	3	491	18,388	6,112	24,500	8,555
25	Ghuman	5½	352	3,015	1,311	4,326	3,947
26	Surai	8	564	7,010	8,109	15,119	4,199
27	Dhillu	9	337	6,497	4,438	10,935	4,293
28	Aráin	3½	450	2,438	1,028	3,466	3,691
29	Sayads	28	606	11,167	19,517	30,684	8,282
30	Kázis	1	5	680	85	765	503
31	Khatri	40½	801	28,311	24,664	52,975	17,850
32	Khatri Nande (Emin- abad Diwáns).	22	350	11,081	8,424	19,505	11,432
33	Arora	8¾	300	4,924	11,466	16,390	4,756
34	Brahmin	13	95	4,322	8,821	13,143	3,288
35	Rájpút	2	69	1,407	2,840	4,247	1,600
36	Bhairúpia	7½	451	1,933	2,088	4,021	1,520
37	Miscellaneous	339 ² / ₁₀	17,085	165,971	222,037	388,008	138,877
	Total	1,228 ¹ / ₁₀	55,628	766,735	877,690	1,644,425	615,131

The Jats, numbering in all 176,490 souls, constitute 25·5 per cent. of the total population of the district and hold 995 out of 1,223 estates. Formerly they were by no means exclusively devoted to agriculture, the main occupation of many of them being that of pasturing cattle in the wilder portions of the district; they had no fixed habitation and led a nomad life. These remarks apply chiefly to the Muhammadan tribes of the Bár, the Bhattís, Bhagsaikes, Lodike and part of the Viraks. Their hereditary characteristics and the great change which has come over them within the last few years are thus described in the Final Settlement Report:—

“The bond between them is rather that of the tribe than of the village community; they are averse to manual labour, and inclined on slight temptation to return to their old predatory habits. No doubt they were being gradually weaned from those habits under our rule, but the canal in a few years has done more to civilise them and make them look to honest labor for their living than the 40 previous years of settled government, and every year they will assimilate more and more in character to the ordinary Punjab peasant.”

The distribution of the leading Jat sub-divisions throughout the district has been already described, and their claim to Rájpút origin has also been referred to. The following figures

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Tribes, Castes,
and Leading
Families.

Statistics and
local distribution of
tribes and castes.

show the number of principal Jat and Rájput tribes returned at the census of 1891 :—

Each of the most important tribes of the district is briefly described below :—

Sub-divisions of Jats.

Name.	Number.	Name.	Number.	Name.	Number.
Awán	1,870	Changar	4,115	Punnun	750
Aulak	1,489	Chima	20,158	Mabil	433
Odi	438	Dhotar	2,174	Goraya	5,637
Bájwa	1,240	Dhariwal	461	Gil	2,334
Buttar	247	Deo	409	Khokhar	4,238
Tárar	5,690	Dhillon	2,496	Kharral	5,444
Chahal	1,275	Sindhu	3,208	Kashmíri	22,320
Chhina	1,764	Sidhu	1,122	Ghumán	2,393
Chandhar	37	Sarae	138	Mán	916
Virakh	21,905	Sapra	1,252	Kohlón	909
Varáich	16,248	Sahi	772	Mángat	610
Haujra	7,966	Chatthe	7,480	Lodíke	1,077
Sánsi	3,028	Sumra	1,047	Aráin	24,002

Sub-divisions of Rájputs.

Name.	Number.	Name.	Number.	Name.	Number.
Bhatti	15,338	Rathor	518	Gondal	3,040
Tunwar	190	Kharral	5,444	Naru	371
Chauhán	1,333	Síal	691	Ránjhe	910
Joia	1,304	Manhás	114		

Some remarks about each of the leading tribes of the district are given below.

Virakhs.

The Virakhs hold 120 villages, *viz.*, 76 villages scattered over the Gujránwála tahsil and 44 on the south-east side of the old Háfizabad tahsil, which have now been included in Khángah Dográn. Politically they are by far the most important tribe in the district. They are mainly Sikhs, in the Bár nearly always so, and physically are a fine athletic manly race for surpassing in energy and industry any of their Muhammadan neighbours. The original home of the tribe is located by tradition in the Jammu Hills, hence they are probably of Rájput descent. They were among the first to embrace the militant Sikhism propagated by Guru Govind Singh, and to take advantage of the decay of Mughal power to establish themselves in the centre of the Doáb. The native army and the Military Police of Burma, Hongkong and the Straits Settlements receive many recruits from this tribe, and even now some of them are to be found in the service of the British Companies in East and South Africa. They are first-rate cultivators, though in the Bár they have taken to agriculture only under our rule, their hereditary profession being arms or theft. Their villages are

prosperous, well developed and usually free from debt. Like most Jat Sikhs, they combine the love of adventure with the love of gain, and are generally to the fore where money is to be made, or where hard knocks are going. In the Sikh villages the spirit of the Khálsa is still strong, their tone is decidedly democratic, and the exercise of authority by the lambardár or zaildár is strongly resented. In this as in other respects, they are the exact opposite of the Bhattís with whom they have a hereditary feud. Strangely enough they are an eminently peaceable people. Rioting and crimes of violence are almost unknown amongst them. They probably perceive that there is nothing to gain and much to lose by violence, for they are most expert in theft of cattle, burglaries, &c., in which there is some profit to be made; and several of their villages, Gajiána, Isharke, Chuharkána, are notoriously centres of illicit distillation. These crimes are the more difficult of detection amongst them as their headmen have little influence. The most prominent men amongst them are Sardár Asa Singh of Chuharkána, Faujdár Singh of Bhikki, Gurdit Singh of Mirza, Wasáwa Singh of Killa Rai Singh, Lál Khan of Khan Musalmán, all of whom are zaildárs.

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Virakhs.

The Chimás hold 112 villages in the eastern half of the Wazírabad and the north-eastern portion of the Gujranwála tahsils, and are agriculturally the most important tribe in the district. They are nearly all Muhammadans now, but lay claim to Rájpút origin, though they intermarry freely with other Jats, and intermarriage within the tribe is now becoming common. They appear to have migrated hither from the Amritsar district through Siálkot. As agriculturists they are superior to any other tribe in the district, industrious and careful though wanting in energy, enterprise and thrift. They are not, however, given to litigation or extravagance, and would seem therefore to have all the elements of prosperity as they inhabit a fertile and highly cultivated tract. All the same they cannot as a tribe be said to be prosperous, for many of their villages, especially in the neighbourhood of Wazírabad, are very heavily involved in debt. The many facilities for borrowing where land is profitable and valuable, and the want of pasture lands on which to raise the cattle required for agriculture, aggravated in many villages by congestion and sub-division of holdings are the main causes of their depression. The leading men in the tribe are Chaudhri Hayát Muhammad, Honorary Magistrate and Zaildár of Wazírabad, his namesake Hayát Muhammad of Ghakkar, Hátim Khan of Mansúrwalí and Prem Chand of Waniánwála, all of these are zaildárs.

Chimás.

The Chathás own 108 estates equally distributed over the western part of Wazírabad and eastern part of Háfizabad. Like the Chimás they are mainly Muhammadans and lay claim to Rájpút origin. During the last century they were independent rulers of a large portion of the district. Their brave

Chathás.

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Chathás.

struggle against the Sikhs has been described in a previous chapter, and they are now prone rather to recall their former glories than to endeavour to improve their present condition. They are not so successful as agriculturists, and many of their villages are sunk in debt. Except for occasional outbursts of violence and lawlessness, they seem to have lost all the spirit which their ancestors possessed. The man of most influence among them is Chaudhri Karm Iláhi, Zaildár of Ahmadnagar, a descendant of the celebrated Núr Muhammad.

Varáichs.

The Varáichs hold 43 villages to the north and north-west of Gujránwála city. They are mainly Sikhs and many of them are in the army. They are good cultivators but not prosperous as a tribe, having suffered from the vicinity of the Munsiff's Court and proximity to the city, with the idle habits, love of litigation and extravagance which it induces. The Sardárs of Ruriála, Jowábir Singh, Honorary Magistrate and Zaildár, son of the late Sardár Bahádur Mán Singh, C.I.E., and Subadár Major Honorary Captain Híra Singh, and Jawand Singh, the Zaildár of Ladhewála, are the most prominent members of the tribe.

Bhattís.

The Bhattís, who are of pure Rájput origin, hold 82 estates in the west and north-west portions of Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn, including the two towns of Pindi Bhattián and Jalálpur. The history of their stout resistance to Ranjít Singh has been told in a previous chapter. The branch known as Bhagsinke who hold many of the large Bár villages are probably descendants of Bár nomads who settled down in Sáwan Mal's time, and being not yet weaned from their thievish and predatory habits they are indifferent cultivators. The rest of the tribe occupies mainly the villages towards the Chenáb. They are fair cultivators, wanting in energy and backbone, but simple, honest, loyal and tractable. Marriage with the Bhattís is coveted by the other tribes. They give their daughters either to one another or only to Sayads and Kureshís in marriage. It might be expected that a Rájput tribe, like the Bhattís, with historical tradition and proved loyalty, would have readily taken to military service, yet I believe they do not contribute a single soldier to our native army. The reason lies in their apathy and want of initiative. The tribal bond among them is very strong, and Hasan Khan of Pindi Bhattián and Kádír Bakhsh of Jalálpur, whose services have been lately recognised by Government by the grant to both of the title "Khán Sáhib," are looked up to as their tribal chiefs. Sarang Khan of Sukheki has very wide influence among the Bhagsinkes, but the affinity which the latter claims with the Bhattís proper is repudiated by the Bhattís proper.

Tárars.

The Tárars, who are immigrants from Gujrát, hold 53 estates in the north and north-east of the Háfizabad tahsil in the vicinity of the Chenáb. For Muhammadans they are fairly industrious, and in several cases one family with only a few

members owns several estates; but with the exception of a few leading men of great wealth and extensive means, the others are a quarrelsome and criminal lot. Many of them have ruined fine properties by foolish and extravagant habits. They are strict Muhammadans and carry the traditional Musalmán virtue, hospitality, to an absurd limit. The tribal bond amongst them is still strong, and Pír Muhammad, Zaidár of Kaulo Tárar, Karm Dád, Zaidár of Wánike, and his son, Fazal Iláhi, have much influence amongst them.

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Tárars.

The Lodikes, a branch of the Kharrals, own 42 villages in the centre and north side of the Bár in the Háfizabad tahsíl, and are probably of Rájput origin. They appear to have migrated to this district from Montgomery two centuries ago. They are all Muhammadans, and hitherto have been notorious as first-rate cattle thieves, lazy and bad cultivators; but they are now developing industrious habits and may in time make good zamindárs. As a tribe they are rather unruly and democratic, and there are no men of much influence amongst them.

Lodikes.

The Gurayás own 21 villages to the south-west of Gujránwála city and 9 near Pindi Bhattián in the Háfizabad tahsíl. They are mainly Muhammadans and Sikhs, "Kúkás" being numerous among them. Few of them are in the army, and though they are devoted entirely to agriculture and are highly praised as cultivators by Captain Nisbet, they are not on the whole prosperous, and alienations by sale or mortgage have spread in most of their villages to an alarming extent. Ghulam Haidar, Zaidár of Moráliwála, is the most representative man amongst them.

Gurayás.

The Hanjrárs and Jags, though they originally held nearly the whole of the Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn tahsíls, are now confined to 34 scattered villages in that portion of the district. They are generally industrious, but stupid and unenterprising, and on the whole by no means prosperous. The Hanjrárs also own eight villages in the Gujránwála tahsíl. They are the oldest tribe in the district. Many of the ruins of what must once have been populous and prosperous towns are by tradition identified with the era of their ascendancy. Their present scattered and forlorn condition is attributed, as in the case of the Jews, to the curse of Providence brought down upon them by an angry saint whose temporal wants they refused to minister to.

Hanjrárs and Jags.

The Mánrs own six villages in the Gujránwála tahsíl and the fertile and extensive estate of Manawála with an area of 23,000 acres in Khángah Dográn. They are one of the three oldest Jat tribes in the Punjab and claim to have been Rájputs inhabiting the country about Delhi. The village of Mán in this district was founded by Lada, who left Delhi in a year of drought, and his descendants added other villages. Though numerically small, some families of this tribe played a very large part in the history of the Punjab under Sikh rule, when the saying that the Mán Sardárs were "handsome, gallant and true" passed into a

Mánrs.

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 Máns.

bye-word. Unfortunately, the present members of the family have done little to maintain this high reputation; and with a few exceptions have ruined or are rapidly ruining themselves by dissipation and extravagance. They have also extensive properties and *jágirs* in Siálkot and Amritsar. The men of note amongst them are Sardár Kirpál Singh, Zaildár of Manawála, who is the biggest landowner in the district, a man of great wealth and enterprise; his uncle, Sardár Basant Singh, Zaildár of Mán. Sardár Mangal Singh of this family is a minor under the control of the Court of Wards. A full account of them will be found in Massy's Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, pages 171—180.

Dhotars and Sekhús.

The Dhotars and Sekhús between them occupy 24 villages in the Gujránwála tahsíl, and the Dhotars own four in Háfizabad, chiefly in the vicinity of Baddocke and Nokhar. They are, for the most part, Hindu and Muhammadan Jats, Sikhs being rare. Few of them are in military service. They hold some of the most fertile villages in the tahsíl, *viz*, Jhallan, Nokhar and Udhowáli, famous for the excellence of the sugarcane, and are careful plodding cultivators, though wanting in energy and intelligence. Hence many of their villages are very heavily encumbered. They are rather looked down upon by the other Jat tribes, who are averse to giving their daughters to them in marriage. Hence a Dhotar has to look for a wife among the Sekhús and *vice versa*. Marriage within the tribe, even among Muhammadans, is very uncommon, showing the strength of their Hindu traditions. Probably, owing to the difficulty they have in getting wives, some of them do not marry at all, and many die childless. The only men of any influence among them are Wadháwa, Lambardár of Nokhar, a Sekhu village, and Báwa Sharm Dás of Dera Dandu Rám, who is a Dhotar.

Sánsís.

The Sánsís are notable as being the tribe from which the family of the Mahárája Ranjít Singh and the well-known Sandhánwála house sprang. They held originally 14 villages around the city and the city itself; but things have gone badly with them on all sides, and only eight villages, and these very heavily encumbered, are now left, the rest having been bought up by the Emínabad Dewáns or capitalists of the city. Whatever their merits as a fighting race may once have been, they seem to have entirely lost them, and at present they contribute hardly a single man to our native army. As agriculturists they are a hopeless failure. Chaudhri Múlráj, the Ala Lambardár of Gujránwála, is the only man of any prominence in the tribe.

Non-jat tribes:
 Brahmins.

Brahmins hold seven villages in the Gujránwála and six in the Háfizabad tahsils. These have been derived by gift from their ancient Jat owners, or grant from the Government of the day.

Khatrís.

The Khatrís in this district are an important class even as landowners, holding 40 villages in Gujránwála, 6 in Wazírabad and 16 in Háfizabad. In the Gujránwála tahsíl the Dewáns of

Emínabad, so closely identified with the administration of Jammu and Kashmir, hold 22 estates. The ownership of this class in nearly all cases dates from our rule, and very few of the villages they now hold were founded by them. Most of the Khatri estates in the Háfizabad tahsíl were gifts from Sáwan Mal who was nearly allied by marriage to the Kapúrs of Háfizabad, and lost no opportunity of advancing their interests. In other cases accident, purchase and their willingness to engage for the revenue when the Jat owners deserted or refused to accept revenue responsibility are the origin of their rights. It has to be borne in mind that the Khatri of this district are not, as elsewhere solely devoted to commercial pursuit or to service under Government in Civil Department. Many of them are Sikhs, and under Sikh rule they played a large part in public affairs, both civil and military. The most successful Sikh administrator, Dewán Sáwan Mal of Akálgarh, and the most famous Sikh General, Sardár Hari Singh, Nalwa, were Khatri of this district, and number of others might be mentioned who won renown both as soldiers and as governors. Hence many of the Khatri families, e.g., the Sardárs of Butála, the Dewáns of Emínabad, the Kapúrs of Háfizabad, the Dewáns of Wazirabad and Sohdra, the Cháchi Sardárs, have strong military tradition and a hereditary capacity for administration. The wonderful facility which the Khatri has of adapting himself to his environment has brought them to the front rather in the civil than the military line under our rule. They are not bad zamindárs; they cultivate little themselves, and with some exceptions are not harsh to their tenants. Dewán Gobind Sahai of Emínabad, who is the largest Khatri landowner, holding six or seven estates, is an excellent landlord, and his property is a model of good management. With the Arorás the Khatri constitute the bulk of the commercial classes. In the census of 1891 the Khatri numbered 23,000, the Arorás 33,892. Only 197 persons were returned as belonging to the Bania tribe.

The Sayads hold in all 28 villages. Most of these are in the Bár where they received gifts of waste land from the Bhatti or Jat tribes; like all Sayads they are bad zamindárs, generally at strife with one another, very prodigal, and always deeply in debt. Sayads.

By far the largest jágirdár in the district is Rája Harbans Singh, Honorary Magistrate of Sheikhupura, the adopted son of Rája Teja Singh, whose jágir was transferred from Batála in Gurdáspur to this district in 1861. Rája Harbans Singh holds 160 of the best estates around Sheikhupura in the Gujranwála and new Khángah Dográn tahsís. The value of his jágir, which is held in perpetuity, has been raised by re-assessment from Rs. 55,263 to Rs. 79,012. The Rája also holds a jágir of Rs. 4,460 in the Lahore district, and has large and valuable estates both here and in Lahore. In spite of this princely income his circumstances are rather embarrassed. The Rája Jágirdárs and leading families.

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Khatri.

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ing families.

generally resides in the old Mughal Fort at Sheikhpura and has judicial powers as a 2nd class Magistrate and 3rd class Munsiff within the limits of his *jágir*. He realises direct from his *jágir* villages, and at the same time realises the cesses due to Government. A full account of the family will be found on pages 14—18, Punjab Chiefs.

Among the other large jágirdárs are the following :—

- (1) Sardár Babádúr Narindar Singh, Honorary E. A. C., younger son of Rája Teja Singh, has a separate *jágir* of Rs. 5,006 per annum in the Gujránwála tahsíl, which was originally allotted to him as a subordinate grant from the *jágir* of Rája Hurbans Singh, but is now held by him independently and in perpetuity with reversion, however, to the elder branch in default of male heirs. The Sardár resides in Lahore, is at present Vice-President of the Lahore Municipality, and exercises the powers of a 1st class Magistrate and 2nd class Munsiff in that district. The disputes between the Sardár and the Rája as to proprietary and *jágir* rights are a fruitful source of trouble to the district authorities, but most doubtful points have now been settled.
- (2) The heirs of Sardár Jhanda Singh of Batála, viz., Sardárs Balwant Singh, E. A. C., Múl Singh, E. A. C., Arjan Singh, Zaildár of Batála, Suchet Singh, hold in joint or separate grants Rs. 5,486, partly for life, partly in perpetuity. The history of this well-known family is given in Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, pages 137—144. The head of it at present is Sardár Balwant Singh. He is a man of public spirit, and contributes Rs. 30 per mensem towards the maintenance of a dispensary in his native village.

The other branch of this family, Sardár Diál Singh, Honorary Magistrate of Wadála in Siálkot, Sardár Partáb Singh, late E. A. C. of Butála, and Sardár Jowála Singh of Wazírabad, holds a *jágir* of Rs. 1,804 in this district, and large grants in Siálkot, of which one-fourth is in perpetuity. There is a long standing feud between the two branches of Butála Sardárs, and the advent of a new Deputy Commissioner is always an occasion for each side to press its claims for the revival of the office of Honorary Magistrate in Butála in its own favour.

- (3) Lála Rám Dás, the son of Rai Mál Singh, holds a grant of Rs. 7,980 under the old, and Rs. 10,972 under the new, assessment. Part of this, which was given to his father by Rája Teja Singh, has

since been confirmed by Government to the descendants of Rai Múl Singh in perpetuity with reversion to the heirs of Rája Teja Singh in case of failure of heirs. The rest is a grant in perpetuity from Government subject to one-fourth *nazarána*. The grant is subject to an allowance of Rs. 1,000 per annum to Lála Bhagwán Dás, the grandson of Rai Múl Singh. The estate has recently been released from the control of the Court of Wards, and the division of the family property and *jágír* accumulations has been amicably settled.

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Jágírdárs and leading families.

- (4) Sardár Ichhra Singh, the grandson of the famous Hari Singh, Nalwa, has a *jágír* of Rs. 2,133, partly for life, partly in perpetuity in the vicinity of Gujranwála where he owns some property and is *zaildár*. The history of this family is given at pages 145—153 of Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, and has been referred to in a previous Chapter. Family disputes and extravagant living have reduced the present head of the family into very narrow circumstances, and most of the houses and lands have now passed into the hands of outsiders.
- (5) Dewáns Lachhman Dás and Amar Náth, of Eminabad, the son and grandson of Dewán Jowála Sahai, of Kashmír, hold a perpetual *jágír* of Rs. 2,396, and Dewán Sant Rám, another member of the same family, holds a life grant of Rs. 1,354. The history of the family is to be found in pages 227—230 and 187—189, Punjab Chiefs, Volume II. In this case too private quarrels and litigation have done much to undermine the prosperity of the family, and the splendid inheritance left by Dewán Jowála Sahai, though still intact as regards the estate, has suffered much from mismanagement. Dewán Lachhman Dás lives generally in Lahore, while Dewán Amar Náth is at present Governor of Jammu. The property in this district is, therefore, rather neglected, and even the Government revenue is realised with delay and difficulty.
- (6) The sons of Sardár Ajít Singh of Atári enjoy a perpetual grant amounting to Rs. 1,301. They are minors under the Court of Wards and reside in the Amritsar District.

The following is a list of the Provincial Darbáris of the district in order of precedence:—

- (1) Rája Lieutenant-Colonel Mirza Ata-ulla Khan, Sardár Bahádur, 10th (The Duke of Cambridge's Own) Bengal Lancers, late British Agent at Kábul, and son of Mirza Fakir-ulla Khan of Wazirabad. The

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ing families.

title of Rájá was conferred on the Mirza as a personal distinction by the Government in 1891. He is descended from the Rájás of Rajauri in the Kángra district and lives at Wazírabad in the Saman Burj, a large and picturesque building overlooking the river and the Pulku Nala, erected during Ranjít Singh's time. He is an Honorary Magistrate at Wazírabad and enjoys service and special pensions amounting to Rs. 380 per mensem. The Rájá holds hereditary *jágírs* amounting to about Rs. 1,200 per annum, a military pension of Rs. 180, and a political pension of Rs. 200 per month.

- (2) Sardár Balwant Singh, E. A. C., of Butála, son of Sardár Nihál Singh, and grandson of the well-known Sardár Jhanda Singh (Massy's Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, page 137.)
- (3) Sardár Partáb Singh, also of Butála, son of Sardár Ganda Singh, who was first cousin to Sardár Jhanda Singh (Punjab Chiefs, *ibid*). He is a retired Extra Assistant Commissioner.
- (4) Sardár Basant Singh, Mán, of Mughal Chak, son of Sardár Fattah Singh, and the chief representative of the famous Mán family above alluded to (Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, page 170). He is zaildár of Mughal Chak, lambardár of Mán, and a member of the Gujránwála District Board. He served in the Police for some years.
- (5) Dewán Hari Singh, of Akálgarh, son of Dewán Mul Ráj and grandson of Dewán Sáwan Mal, the best of all the Sikh Governors. (Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, page 154). He is in receipt of a life allowance of Rs. 1,500 per annum and is an Extra Assistant Commissioner.
- (6) Lála Rám Dás, son of Rai Múl Singh. His family is reckoned as the highest among the Khatris in this district. His father was the Confidential Agent of Rájá Teja Singh and did excellent service for the British Government. He resides at Gujránwála.
- (7) Sardár Jowáhir Singh, Mán, of Ruriála, is son of the late Sardár Bahádur Mán Singh, c.i.e., who helped to raise Hodson's Horse and was one of the most distinguished native officers in the Province. Jowáhir Singh is Zaildár and Honorary Magistrate.
- (8) Sardár Sant Singh, of Gharjakh, son of Sardár Fattah Singh, who was an Honorary Magistrate of Gujránwála (Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, page 197).

The following are the Divisional Darbáris of the district :—

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Jágírdárs and leading families.
- (1) and (2) Sardárs Arjan Singh and Jowála Singh, of Butála, the former a first cousin of Sardár Balwant Singh, the head of the family and is Zaidár of Butála, the latter a brother of Sardár Partáb Singh, E. A. C., was formerly Honorary Magistrate at Wazírabad, but lost the office. He still resides there and is a member of the Municipal Committee.
 - (3) Prohit Bishen Dás, son of Prohit Balrám, is the head of a famous family of Prohits in Gujránwála city, which formerly enjoyed much influence as being the family priests of Ranjit Singh. They held considerable *jágírs* which have gradually lapsed. Bishen Dás owns some landed property and enjoys a life pension of Rs. 300 per annum from Government. He is a very respectable and deserving gentleman.
 - (4) Lála Daryai Mal, of Akálgarh, is son of Dewán Rám Chand, a descendant of Nának Chand, the eldest brother of Dewán Sáwan Mal, of whose family Dewán Hari Singh above mentioned is the representative. He is a member of the Gujránwála District Board and of the Municipal Committee of Akálgarh, and has been for many years most zealous and successful in furthering the cause of education, and especially of female education, in his native town.
 - (5) Another member of this family is Manohar Lál, also of Akálgarh, son of Káhan Chand and great-grandson of Gurmukh Rai, brother of Nának Chand and Sáwan Mal (Punjab Chiefs, *ibid*). He is President of the Municipal Committee of his native town.
 - (6) Lála Ganda Mal, of Sohdra, son of Dewán Ganpat Rai (Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, page 194). He is now employed in the Bikanir State.
 - (7) Sardár Ichhra Singh, Nalwa, son of Sardár Arjan Singh and grandson of the great Hari Singh (Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, page 145). His *jágír* and position in the district have been alluded to above and the history of the more prominent members of his family has been given in the Chapter on the History of the District. Though not a Provincial Darbári, he is regarded as the leading Rais in the district.
 - (8) Karam Iláhi, son of Khuda Bakhsh, Chatha (Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, page 200). He is a member of the District Board and Zaidár of Ahmadnagar and the head of the Chatha tribe.

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ing families.

- (9) Dewán Kirpa Rám, son of the late General Harsukh Rai, of Háfizabad (Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, page 205). His father did good service for the British Government in the days before and also during the mutiny, and he enjoys a *jágír* grant of Rs. 300, which has now been released to the family in perpetuity. The present value of the grant is Rs. 400. Kirpa Rám is one of the leading Khatris in Háfizabad. He and his nephew jointly own two valuable estates in the vicinity of the town.
- (10) The chief representative of the family to which Kirpa Rám belongs, however, is Lála Rám Dyál, son of Hushnák Rai, and first cousin of General Harsukh Rai (Punjab Chiefs, *ibid*). He is a Lambardár and Zaildár of Háfizabad and a member of the District Board. He is the father of Sáin Dás, late Sadr Kánúngo, and of Mathra Dás, acting Zaildár. This venerable old gentleman is now close on 90 years of age, and though he has lived to see his grandson's grand children, he is still hale and hearty.
- (11) Manohar Lál, son of Dewán Rattan Chand, of Wazírabad, is a Náib-Tahsildár. The family was of some note under the Sikhs and many members of it attained high place in the Jammu State.
- (12) Sardár Mehr Singh, son of Sardár Gurdit Singh, Chháchi, of Wazírabad (Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, page 133). His brother Sardár Dyál Singh holds the post of Sub-Registrar at Wazírabad. The family really belongs to the Jhelum district, where it holds considerable property and *jágírs*. It is one of the best known in the North Punjab.
- (13) Malik Muhammad Niwáz Khan, son of Khan Bahádur Malik Rahmat Khan, Awán, is the head of an Awán family settled for many generations in the vicinity of Háfizabad, where it has acquired five or six whole estates. The sons of Rahmat Khan have recently purchased the proprietary right in 1,000 acres of Government land leased to their father in 1885 on favourable terms.
- (14) Rám Chand, son of the late Colonel Mutsadi Mal, Sardár Bahádur of Wazírabad. The father was a man of some eminence, the son was formerly Honorary Magistrate at Wazírabad, but his powers were taken away from him at the same time as from Jowála Singh.
- (15) Dewán Sant Rám (Punjab Chiefs, Volume II, page 187), son of Dewán Karam Chand, of Eminabad, who has been above mentioned as one of the leading *jágírdárs* of the district. Karam Chand was in

the service of the Mahárája of Jammu, and his son has followed his example.

- (16) Mirza Zaffar-ulla Khan, son of Mirza Yahya Khan of Rajauri. He is a relative of Rájá Ata-ulla Khan.
- (17) Sardár Kirpál Singh, Mán, is the head of the eldest branch of the Mán family. He is Zaildár of Mananwála and a man of extensive property and considerable capacity. He formerly served in the Public Works Department.
- (18) Sardár Asa Singh, of Chuharkána, is the man of most note among the important Virakh tribe. He is also zaildár.

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Tribes Castes and Leading Families

Jágírdárs and leading families.

The following list shows all the Darbárís in order of precedence with their position in the Provincial and Divisional Darbár Lists :—

Serial No.	Number in the		Provincial or Divisional.	NAME AND RESIDENCE.
	Provincial List.	Divisional List.		
1	...	9	Divisional ...	Sardár Mehr Singh, Chháchi, of Wazírabad.
2	...	8	Provincial ...	„ Balwant Singh, of Butála, Extra Assistant Commissioner.
3	...	14	Divisional ...	„ Ichhra Singh, Nalwa, of Gujranwála.
4	...	9	Provincial ...	Lieutenant-Colonel Rájá Atta-ulla Khán, of Wazírabad.
5	...	16	„ ...	Lála Rám Dás, of Gujranwála.
6	...	17	„ ...	Dewán Hari Singh, of Akálgarh, Extra Assistant Commissioner.
7	...	18	„ ...	Sardár Partáb Singh, of Butála, retired Extra Assistant Commissioner.
8	...	30	Divisional ...	„ Jowála Singh, of Butála.
9	...	31	„ ...	„ Arjan Singh
10	...	21	Provincial ...	„ Basant Singh, Mán, of Mughal Chak.
11	...	38	Divisional ...	Dewán Daryai Mal, of Akálgarh.
12	...	39	„ ...	„ Manohar Lál
13	...	22	Provincial ...	Sardár Jowáhir Singh, Varáich, of Ruríala.
14	...	54	Divisional ...	Misr Rám Chand, of Wairoke.
15	...	71	„ ...	Dewán Sant Rám, of Eminabad.
16	...	73	„ ...	Sardár Kirpál Singh, Mán, of Mananwála.
17	...	76	„ ...	Dewán Ganda Mal, of Sohdra.
18	...	77	„ ...	Prohit Bishan Dás, of Gujranwála.
19	...	78	„ ...	Dewán Manohar Lál, of Wazírabad, Náib-Tahsíldár.
20	...	79	„ ...	Mirza Zaffar-ulla Khan, of Wazírabad.
21	...	34	Provincial ...	Sardár Sant Singh, of Gharjakh.
22	...	82A	Divisional ...	Dewán Kirpa Rám, of Háfizabad.
23	...	83	„ ...	Malik Muhammad Nawáz Khan, Awán, of Garhi Awán.
24	...	84	„ ...	Sardár Asa Singh, Virakh, of Chuharkána.
25	...	88	„ ...	Chaudhrí Karam Iláhi, Obatha, of Ahmad-nagar.
26	...	89	„ ...	Lála Rám Dyál, of Háfizabad.

Note.—The place of Sardár Bahádur Lehna Singh, Chimni, who died in 1892, is still vacant. He was No. 33 in the Provincial and No. 75 in the Divisional List.

SECTION D.—VILLAGE COMMUNITIES, RIGHTS AND TENURES.

Chapter III, D.

Village
Communities,
Rights and
Tenures.State of tenures
at annexation.

In the Chapter on the History of the District it has already been stated that, whereas in the western portion of the district the settlement of the present inhabitants on the land began in the last century, and is proceeding up to date, in the Guj-ránwála and Wazirabad the villages are, as a rule, of much greater antiquity. In these tahsils the present owners are the descendants of the men who held the land under Mughal rule, and the tribal and village traditions have continued in an unbroken chain from that era.

But the revenue history of the district in so far as it bears upon present conditions begins under the Sikhs, the rise of whose power in this part of the Punjab dates from 1750. By 1810 A. D. Ranjít Singh had brought the whole district under his sway. His fiscal policy was two-fold. In the first place, groups of villages were let out to kárdárs or farmers of the revenue, who contracted to make certain fixed payments to the royal treasury, while they were allowed to make what they could out of the cultivators; and, secondly, the greater part of the district was assigned in *jágír* to the local chiefs, subject to the obligation of military service or to the royal courtiers for their maintenance. The *jágírdárs* realised direct in cash or in kind like the kárdárs. Both systems pressed equally hard on the people who were regarded as a sponge to be squeezed to the utmost limit compatible with their continuing to cultivate, and when they refused or were unable to pay, the land was made over to outsiders.

The result was that under Sikh rule proprietary rights had no value, the distinction between owner and tenant being unknown, as the State demand absorbed all the profits of cultivation and left no margin of rent for the non-cultivating proprietors. Though 50 years of settled rule has done much to obliterate all traces of the chequered history of the village communities in the last and the first half of the present century, and our uniform revenue system has tended to make them all assimilate to a common standard, it is still possible to observe the distinction in their constitution due to the stage of development being more or less advanced, or to various political influences. The origin of the village community and the explanation of the different forms it assumes have been the subject of a great deal of theoretic speculation on which it is unnecessary to enter. But leaving theory aside, and viewing the question from the standpoint of practical experience, we can trace the foundation of the existing communities as distinguished from the ideal societies which philosophic imagination has evolved, to two main influences: (1) the expansion of the joint family; (2) the disintegration of the tribe. We may even go further and say that the first of these influences has been most active in the Hindu social system, the keystone of which

Origin of village
communities.

is the joint family, while the second influence has been at work among Muhammadans with whom the family bond is weak, while the tribal bond is comparatively strong. This applies specially to the semi-nomad or pastoral tribes who, in their nomad state, are held together chiefly by the tribal bond, but as each group settles down on the land, and disassociates itself from the main body, the tribal tie gradually becomes weaker and looser, while the bond of common village interests increases in strength. This district presents the village community in every form from its earliest development to its decay.

The following description by Mr. Morris of the condition of tenures and rights in land when he began the regular settlement in 1853 offers an instructive parallel to the present state of things:—

“Here, in consequence of the unsettled state of the country for the last half century, the former prevalence of the *kan* system (the evil effect of which has been almost to do away with the distinction of proprietor and cultivator), the ill-defined nature of the proprietary rights, and the pastoral habits and nomad character of the people, we do not meet with those thriving village communities, bound together by ties of clanship and brotherhood, every member of which will take care that his own rights are recorded, and the liabilities of the others not omitted. On the contrary, the people here almost invariably ignore the principle of joint responsibility. Under the Sikhs each was considered liable only for his own well or plot of cultivation, and if one member failed to pay his quota of the revenue, it was not exacted from the others. The consequence, therefore, has been that the people generally have been very tardy in affording aid in preparation of the Settlement record, it being beyond their comprehension that a system of joint privileges must also necessarily be one of joint responsibility. Another difficulty that meets one is the general apathy of the people; for so long have they been accustomed to have no voice in the management of the affairs of the village, that they are now very slow at comprehending that their wishes are consulted with any view to their real benefit. Again, the secret opposition of the *lambardárs* has proved an obstacle. This, however, is not more than was to be expected, when we remember that these *lambardárs* were the men who under the Sikhs enjoyed all the profits. Any attempt, therefore, now made to define and secure the rights of the community at large cannot be very acceptable to them, tending, as it must, to circumscribe their profits, and diminish their influence and consequence. I am, however, clearly of opinion that the too sudden introduction of our revenue system has not been attended with favourable results. It has taken the power out of the hands of the *lambardárs* who alone have been hitherto accustomed to exercise it, and made it over to those who neither appreciate the gift, nor understand the benefits accruing therefrom. The consequence has been that Government has been a loser in a financial point of view, if in no other. Another difficulty has been the low value of land. Where land is rich and valuable, much sought after and appreciated, the rights and liabilities attaching to property in it are well known, easily attested, and accurately recorded; but here, where land is a mere drug in the market, where property in the same is more dreaded for the liabilities attendant thereon than sought after for the profits accruing therefrom, it will not be a matter of wonder that the attestation of a record showing accurately its rights and liabilities should have been attended with so much labour and trouble. The majority of the proprietors hold their land by right of possession rather than by any ancestral title. In the *Khádir* especially, each is proprietor of the plot of land he has reclaimed from the waste (*buta márá*). In the well tracts we sometimes meet with villages where the land is divided according to ancestral shares, but such instances are rare.”

The first effect of settled rule following on a period of anarchy and confusion was to revive and consolidate the village communities which Mr. Morris found in a state of such disintegration and decay. Hence it is no surprise to find that when

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Captain Nisbet revised the settlement ten years later, the principle of joint responsibility had come to be generally recognised, shares, ancestral or customary, which had been lost sight of when every man was fighting for his own hand and could not afford to undertake responsibility for his neighbour, again came into prominence, and instead of a set of communities grouped together fortuitously, and the members of each recognising no bond of common ownership, we find the village community fully and firmly developed. Hence Captain Nisbet describes the prevailing tenure which ten years before had been usually based on possession (*bhayachāra*) as *pattidāri* in which the basis of proprietary rights and revenue liability are shares, either ancestral, or fixed by custom with reference to some certain standard. Captain Nisbet considered the old classification erroneous, and remarked that—

“The people themselves as a fact always distributed and paid the revenue among themselves according to certain shares, either ancestral or customary, either on ploughs, shares in wells, or distinction of good and bad soil, which was the ancient and acknowledged standard of every proprietor's right and responsibility in the village.”

Out of 1,199 estates he classified 138 as *zamindāri*, owned by a single owner or several owners holding jointly, 211 as pure *pattidāri* held by ancestral shares, 765 as mixed *pattidāri* or held with reference to customary or arbitrary shares, and only 85 as *bhayachāra* or held solely according to possession. The different classifications adopted by Mr. Morris and Captain Nisbet are capable of being reconciled and explained by the consideration that Mr. Morris recorded what he saw in an earlier, Captain Nisbet what he saw in a later, stage of the development of village institutions.

With all its apparent fixity, the constitution of the village community changes silently but steadily in harmony with every change in the outer world, and the influences of the present age with its tendencies in eastern countries to break down old barriers and to substitute individual effort for co-operation have gradually undermined what was regarded as the most permanent institution in the slowly changing East.

Cause of disruption
of the village com-
munity.

The beginning of this process may be traced to the practical removal of all restrictions on alienation. The door having once been opened to outsiders, to the capitalist and the money-lender, the homogeneous character of the community disappears; conflicting interests begin to clash with one another; disintegration of joint rights follows; each shareholder hastens to clamour for the separation of his individual share, the common land is divided, till finally perhaps the only relic of common ownership left is a patch of grazing ground which was not worth partitioning or a common burial ground to mark the common goal to which all alike are tending. The process of disintegration, though it complicates the problem of administration, is not altogether an unmixed evil, as it promotes more rapid development. Hence it has been particularly active in those parts of the district where the extension of canal irrigation to vast

areas of virgin soil has given most scope to individual effort. One result of the changes is, that possession as the basis of individual right and liability has again come prominently to the front, and villages where the owners have hitherto held by ancestral or customary shares have now generally abandoned them in favour of possession.

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Village tenures.

Table No. XV shows the number of villages held in various forms of tenure as determined at the recent settlement. When the new assessments were announced, the shareholders of an estate were informed of the former method of distribution and asked whether they would adhere to it unaltered or with certain modifications or would substitute a new form. When they had decided what course to take, the Settlement Officer himself fixed the form of tenure under which the estate should be classified. It is in many cases, however, impossible to class a village satisfactorily under any one of the ordinary recognised tenures, the primary division of rights between the main subdivisions of the village following one form, while the interior distribution among the several proprietors of each of these subdivisions follows another form, which itself often varies from one sub-division to another. The prevalent tenure of the district would appear to be of the kind described as *bhayacháru*, the rights and liabilities of the members of the village proprietary bodies being determined by actual possession and not by shares either derived from ancestral right or customary as in *pattidári* estates. That in the great majority of cases the rule of the distribution of the land revenue is possession, does not mean however that the area of the holdings alone is taken as the standard of liability for the revenue, and an all round rate is fixed on all cultivation alike. Though common in other districts, this all round rate system only finds favour in 111 estates. The popular system is a distribution by differential rates; sometimes differential water and dry rates; sometimes differential *cháhi* or irrigation rates on well areas, classified according to the condition of the well building, the number of *yekes*, the depth of water, or the nature of the soil and produce. In fact, among the people each well is regarded as a separate estate and the well assessments are determined by them with reference to the same considerations as those by which the village assessments were fixed at the settlement.

The figures in the margin show the		distribution of the	Classification of
		revenue as given	tenures.
		in Mr. O'Dwyer's	
		Final Settlement	
		Report.	
		In the recent	
		settlement the	
		record of rights was	
		very carefully	
		revised; it was	

Total number of estates	1,233
1. Owned by a single owner	33
2. Owned jointly by more than one owner	73
3. Revenue distributed by shares—					
(a) Ancestral shares	50
(b) Customary shares	28
4. Revenue distributed by possession—					
(a) All round rates	111
(b) All round rate after deducting well <i>ábiana</i>	215
(c) Differential soil rates without well <i>ábiana</i>	337
(d) Different soil and <i>ábiana</i> rates	318
(e) Lump sum on wells	70

These figures show how great the change has been since last settlement.

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compared with that of the last settlement, and all variations between recorded ownership and possession, between shares as recorded and as claimed, &c., were ascertained, and in most cases were adjusted by an amicable arrangement between the contending parties, or, if no compromise could be arrived at, were settled by a civil suit.

Chief headmen
and zaildárs.

The number of headmen in the several tahsils of the

Tahsil.	Zaildárs.	Chief headmen.	Headmen.
Gujránwála	17	362	756
Wazirabad	12	223	492
Háfizabad	10	289	598
Khángah Dográn	5	81	164
Total	44	955	2,010

district is shown in the margin. The zaildári system was introduced into this district shortly before the late settlement of 1865, police zaildárs to the number of 16 being appointed over Háfizabad and part of Gujránwála. Their position was originally that of

honorary police officers, and they were paid direct from the Treasury, the allowances ranging from Rs. 100 to Rs. 150; these allowances are still paid in two cases, *viz.*, those of Kádír Bakhsh, zaildár of Jalálpur, and Sajjan, zaildár of Kasise, who receive Rs. 100 each per annum, but will lapse on the death of the present incumbents. At last settlement, to quote from Captain Nisbet's report—

At commencement of the field survey, the men of known influence and good service, who were looked up to as chiefs over a considerable circle of villages, were appointed zaildárs or settlement chaudhris. The office was an eagerly coveted one, and the right men I believe got the position. Each zaildár had five or six patwáris' tappás, which formed his circle of jurisdiction. In consideration of duties for which they are made responsible affecting the general welfare as well as the revenue administration of the district, the zaildár receives an *inám* varying from Rs. 100 to Rs. 200 per annum, a percentage on the *jama* of his *zail*, and a small grant of cultivable land, usually about 50 acres.

In addition each zaildár was provided with a chaprási paid from the *malba* of the villages in the *zail*. The police zaildárs in all cases received appointments, thus facilitating the union of the zaildárs' police and revenue duties. Under the new Land Revenue Act a uniform deduction of one per cent. on the land revenue has been substituted for the former fluctuating cess. The old arrangements were extremely unequal as regards size of the *zails*, emoluments, &c.; the number of *zails*, 57, was too large to allow of the remuneration being substantial. Consequently at the new settlement the number was reduced to 44, and the boundaries were revised, tribal limits, patwáris' circles and other administrative considerations being taken as the basis of the revised arrangements. The following table

gives the leading statistics for the *zails* as at present constituted:—

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Chief headmen
and *zaildárs*.

Tahsil.	Zail.	Number of pat- wáris' circles.	Land revenue.	Income to <i>zail- dár</i> .	Prevailing tribe.
			Rs.	Rs.	
GUJRANWALA.	1. Arúp	6	22,952	230	Chima.
	2. Firozwála	4	17,405	174	Butar.
	3. Gujranwála	7	24,616	246	Sánsi, Varáich.
	4. Miráliwála	6	18,750	187	Guraya.
	5. Mán	5	17,796	178	Mán, Varáich.
	6. Mandiála... ..	5	22,845	228	Varáich.
	7. Ladhewála	5	16,010	160	"
	8. Butála Jhanda Singh	5	16,645	167	"
	9. Chahil	6	19,645	197	Chahil, Sekhu.
	10. Chabba Sandhwán	7	22,625	226	Dhotar.
	11. Naushahra	7	19,349	193	Virakh.
	12. Kariál Kalán	6	18,260	182	"
	13. Mangoke	6	18,796	188	"
	14. Majju Chak	6	17,013	171	"
	15. Kámoke	6	16,485	165	"
	16. Eminabad	6	20,730	207	Khatri.
	17. Ghunáur	7	18,450	184	Rájpút and Lubána.
	Total	100	3,28,372	3,281	
WAZIRABAD.	1. Sohdra	6	22,530	225	Chima.
	2. Jaura	4	15,390	154	"
	3. Gakhar	4	19,595	196	"
	4. Dhaunkal	4	16,885	169	"
	5. Wazirabad	6	23,277	233	"
	6. Badoke	5	20,275	203	"
	7. Ahmadanagar	5	20,890	209	Chima and Chatha.
	8. Saroke	6	24,490	245	Chima.
	9. Sahloke	4	13,558	136	Chatha.
	10. Manchar	6	18,085	181	"
	11. Noiwála	5	19,503	195	"
	12. Rámnagar	5	18,160	182	"
	Total	60	2,32,638	2,328	
HAJIBABAD.	1. Wanike	10	31,287	313	Tárar.
	2. Rámke Chatha	7	21,215	212	Chatha.
	3. Kanlo Tárar	8	22,731	228	Tárar.
	4. Jalálpur	10	28,085	281	Bhatti.
	5. Pindi Bhattián	12	30,433	304	"
	6. Sukheke	7	20,025	200	Bhagsinke Bhatti.
	7. Kassie	6	16,140	162	Lodike.
	8. Thatta Mának	5	16,210	162	" and Bhagsinke.
	9. Hájbabad	8	24,640	246	Hijra and Khatri.
	10. Kassoke	7	22,780	228	Bhatti and Virakh.
	Total	80	2,33,546	2,336	

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Tahsil.	Zail.	Number of pat- wáris' circles.	Land revenue.	Income to zail- dar.	Prevailing tribe.
			Rs.	Rs.	
KHANGAR DOGRAN.	1. Gajiána	8	21,690	217	Bhatti.
	2. Chuharkána	8	22,775	229	Virakh.
	3. Mirza	6	19,740	197	"
	4. Bhikhi	6	14,425	144	"
	5. Manawála	2	9,800	98	" and Mán.
	Total	30	88,430	885	
44. Grand Total ...	270	8,82,986	8,830		

The zaildárs now receive their remuneration, which averages Rs. 201 per zaildár, from a selected village in each *zail*, instead of having to realise it in driblets village by village. They have, however, to pay the *chaprási*, if they maintain one, out of their own pockets.

Chief headmen.

At the revised settlement of 1867-68 chief headmen (*ála-lambardárs* or *sarpanchs*) were appointed in almost every village in the district, 1,268 out of 1,225, irrespective of the fact whether the village contained one or more headmen and they received in addition to their ordinary remuneration as headmen 5 per cent., on the land revenue realised by them, an additional cess of 1 per cent. on the land revenue of the whole estate and grants of land, varying from 2 to 75 acres according to the size of the estate and the area of available land, revenue free. The allotment was generally made from the village waste, but in some cases from individual holdings, and the disputes and litigation which this arrangement gave rise to in this and other districts in the Central Punjab are familiar to every Revenue Officer. The history of the subject is fully summarised in "Financial Commissioner's Selections, New Series, No. 20," and the upshot of the discussion which took place when the settlements of the Central Punjab came under revision in 1888-1894, was that abolition of the office of chief headman was sanctioned as vacancies occur in all estates with less than three headmen, while in villages with three or more headmen it will be retained till next settlement. At the same time it has been directed that the revenue free holdings should now be assessed to land revenue, and this assessment, provided it did not exceed one per cent. on the total assessment of the estate, should go to the chief headman in the form of a cash *inám* in cases where the office is maintained; and where the office has been or will be abolished should be utilised for the creation of *zamíndári ináms*. These orders are now being given effect to.

Statistics showing the number of estates and the amount of the *ináms* that will lapse and that will be maintained are given in the annexed table—

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TAHSIL.	Total Number of villages.	Number of villages in which <i>ála lambárdári ináms</i> exist.		Amount of <i>ála lambárdári inám.</i>	Number of villages in which <i>ála lambárdári inám</i> is retained.	Amount of <i>inám.</i>	Villages in which <i>ála lambárdári inám</i> resumed.	Amount of <i>inám</i> resumed.	Villages in which <i>ála lambárdári</i> will lapse on death of holder.	Amount of such <i>inám.</i>	Amount available for zamindári <i>inám.</i>	Number of zamindári <i>inám</i> proposed.
		3	4									
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
			Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	Rs.		
Gujránwála	455	362	2,542	72	977	8	36	282	1,520	1,565	32	
Wazirabad	266	223	1,688	53	692	9	50	161	946	996	21	
Háfizabad	405	280	1,667	27	328	3	13	259	1,326	1,330	27	
Khángah Dográn ...	111	81	469	12	183	60	286	286	6	
Total ...	1,237	955	6,366	164	2,180	20	90	771	4,087	4,186	86	

From this it will be seen that the office will eventually be retained in only 164 estates, that *ináms* amounting to Rs. 6,267 will lapse in 791 estates, and from the sums thus rendered available it has been arranged to create 86 zamindári *ináms* averaging Rs. 49 each, one or more in each *zail* according to circumstances. The recipients of these *ináms* will be selected from time to time by the Deputy Commissioner. The chief headman as such has now no longer any right in the *muáfi* land beyond receiving the assessment thereof.

The number of village headmen though large is not excessive, averaging less than two per estate. The amount of revenue collected by each averages Rs. 439, and the remuneration per head at 5 per cent. on the collections comes to Rs. 22.

Village headmen.

At the recent settlement some attempts were made to reduce the number where excessive as vacancies arose, but such reduction requires the sanction of the Financial Commissioner, the procedure is lengthy and cumbrous, the feeling against reduction among the persons concerned who cling jealously to every such vestige of authority even where the material advantages attached to it are merely nominal, and it was therefore found difficult to effect reduction on any considerable scale.

In many villages of the Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn tahsils, where the extension of canal irrigation had brought

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about a great development of resources, it was found necessary to increase the number of lambardárs.

Table No. XV shows the number of proprietors or shareholders, and the gross area held in property under each of the main forms of tenure, and also gives details for large estates and for Government grants and similar tenures. They are taken from the statistics in the last Revenue Report. The average total and cultivated area held and the assessment paid per owner, deducting land held by occupancy tenants and usufructuary mortgages, are shown in the following figures which are taken from Mr. O'Dwyer's Final Settlement Report :—

SETTLEMENT.	Total area per owner.			Cultivated area per owner.			Revenue in Rupees per owner.		
	Gujránwála.	Wazirabad.	Háfizabad.	Gujránwála.	Wazirabad.	Háfizabad.	Gujránwála.	Wazirabad.	Háfizabad.
Regular	37	31	80	14.5	13	13	16	17	14
Revised 1867-68	36	32	65	18	14	13	16	18	13
Present 1889-93	29	22	43	17	12	16	19	17	16

Tenant and rent.

Table No. XVI shows the number of tenancy holdings and the gross area held under each of the main forms of tenancy as they stood in 1893-94, while Table No. XXI gives the current rent rates for the same period. The following figures as regards occupancy tenants have been taken from Mr. O'Dwyer's Final Report :—

Tahsíl.	Number of holdings.	Cultivated area.	Per cent. of total cultivation.
Gujránwála	3,069	12,976	4.4
Wazirabad	2,388	10,042	6.25
Háfizabad	2,458	14,771	4.5
Total	7,915	37,789	4.8

Considerable alterations in the record of the relations between landlord and tenant have been effected since the regular settlement 1854-56, at which nearly all tenants who claimed a right of occupancy seem to have been freely allowed it by the owners. Mr. Morris says in his report:—

“ There have been very few, if any, disputes regarding cultivators with right of possession. The fact is, that in consequence of the population and the scarcity of cultivators, the proprietors have been only too glad to give up to all their cultivators the right of possession, with the object of inducing them to remain on the estate. We find, moreover, that not only have the majority of cultivators been entered as hereditary, but that many also hold their land at the same rates as proprietors. *Málikána* is the exception, not the rule, and it rarely, if ever, exceeds 6½ per cent. or one anna in the rupee.”

Accordingly we find that of the 35 per cent. of the cultivation in the hands of tenants 17 per cent. or about 75,000 acres was held by hereditary tenants, and 18 per cent. by tenants-at-will. The settlement of 1868 effected a great change in the status of these tenants. The theory of Mr. Prinsep was that occupancy rights should only be recognized if created by decree of Court or consent of the landlord. In all other cases the tenant, even though recorded as “*maurusi*” or hereditary, was held to be only entitled to protection (*panáh*) from ejection and enhancement of rent for a period limited according to the circumstances of the case. Such tenants were recorded as *panáhi*. The result was that thousands of tenants were deprived of their “hereditary” status and reduced to the position of lease or copy-holders.

Under the Tenancy Act of 1868 power was given to revise these proceedings and to restore to all occupancy tenants entered as such at the regular settlement a presumptive right of occupancy. Consequently a great number of the old *maurusi* tenants were so restored, and the proprietor was left to take the necessary measures for rebutting the presumption of occupancy rights should he think fit to do so, while the tenant was left to take the necessary measures for obtaining an authoritative declaration of his precise status as tenant under the Act.

The action taken, however, was not very thorough and searching, and the result was that at the beginning of the new settlement the area held by occupancy tenants which at the regular settlement amounted to about 75,000 acres was then only 37,000.

At the new settlement the question was again taken up and it was ultimately decided that tenants hitherto shown as *dawami*, *panáhi dawami*, or *maurusi* should now be shown as occupancy tenants, and that in all other cases of *panáhi* tenants the entries of the old record should be repeated in the new one, attention being drawn to the history of the subject as contained in “Financial Commissioner’s printed Selections, New Series, No. 40,” by a special note on the record. There are in all 1,450 of these protected *panáhi* holdings, covering an area of 3,560 acres and paying Rs. 4,029 rent. For statistical purposes they are

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Tenant right.

Tenants-at-will.

Rents of tenants-
at-will.

treated as occupancy tenants. Occupancy tenants in this district generally pay in cash at revenue rates with a slight addition as *málikána* which in Gujránwála and Háfizabad averages only two annas per rupee in Wazírabad three and a half annas.

The relations between them and their landlords are usually harmonious, and during the recent settlement only 120 suits for enhancement were lodged.

As regards tenants-at-will, they are favourably circumstanced in this district, for owing to the large size of the holdings, the great area of available land and the demand for cultivators in the newly opened up canal tract, the competition is not among tenants for land to cultivate, but among landlords for tenants. The latter are therefore able to secure good terms and rack-renting is very rare. If the landlords endeavour to unduly force up rents in the old villages, the tenants can throw up their holdings and migrate to the new colonies. In fact the supply of tenants within the district is not equal to the demand, and for the last three years there has been a steady influx of cultivators to the canal-irrigated tract from Siálkot, Amritsar, Gujrát and parts of Lahore.

Tenants-at-will either pay in kind (*batai*) or at fixed rents which are either pure cash (*nakdi*) or mixed cash and grain rents (*chakota*), viz., a fixed sum of cash in the autumn and a fixed amount of grain, generally wheat, in the spring harvest.

Kind rents are not very popular in the district as the following figures show:—

Tahsil	Per cent. of cultivation held by tenants-at-will.	Per cent. held in batai rents.	Per cent. held at fixed rents.
Gujránwála	50.5	11	40.5
Wazírabad	46	8.5	37.5
Háfizabad	45	15	30.

So that 47 per cent. of the total cultivation is in the hands of tenants-at-will, but kind rents prevail on only 12 per cent., while fixed rents are the rule on 35 per cent. Kind rents are most common on the inundated (*sailába*) lands on the Chenáb, where the tenant pays one-third or two-fifths of the produce, and are almost universal on canal-irrigated lands where the tenant usually pays one-fourth of the produce, including straw, to the landlord, and is also responsible for the water-rates, while the landlord pays the revenue. On wells to which no less than 60 per cent. of the total cultivation is attached, kind rents are

never found. In the highly cultivated Charkhari circles of Gujránwála and Wazírabad the fixed mixed cash and grain rent is the rule, the standard per acre being one rupee in the kharíf and two mans of wheat in the rabi harvest. The tenants on well lands, the cultivation of which requires a good deal of capital, are generally Jats, often proprietors themselves or akin to the proprietary body. The cultivators on canal, inundated and dry (*bárání*) lands are very mixed, and include a large proportion of village menials—Chuhrás, Kumhárs, Tarkháns, Mochís, &c. The tenancies on all lands are usually from year to year. The engagement is entered into in March or April; the tenant receives possession when the rabi crop is reaped in May, or earlier if he wants to sow cotton, and the tenancy terminates, in theory at least when he has reaped the rabi crop of the following year. The rents are paid half-yearly in arrear, and are realised more punctually and fully than might be expected. Suits for arrears are few; if there has been a balance in the case of fixed cash or mixed rents owing to a bad harvest, it is usually carried on to the next year's account, or if the landlord is a money-lender he debits the cultivator with the value of the grain due.

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at-will.

The deep-stream is the boundary between estates on opposite banks of the Chenáb, except in the two cases of Kádírpur and Farkpur where the custom of fixed boundaries obtains, probably because the estates on the other side of the stream are held by the same body of owners. To ensure that the same land has not been measured twice over by the officials of both districts, and that no land had escaped measurement, as well as to afford an accurate basis for the decision of boundary disputes, it was arranged at the recent settlement in conjunction with the Settlement Officers of Shahpur and Gujrát to carry the measurements on each bank across the river to the opposite bank simultaneously so that both series of maps should show not only the river but some permanent marks on the other bank. The maps of opposite villages having been thus brought into correspondence, a comparison between them showed what land was in dispute, and all such disputes were decided by the Settlement Officers jointly. As between adjoining villages the ownership in new land formed on their boundary is governed by the rule of *máház*, which is applied by prolongation of the existing boundary between the rival estates.

River usages.

As regards internal di-alluvion changes the almost invariable custom is that the condition of things at settlement is taken as a starting point. If land is washed away after settlement the loss is the owner's and he cannot claim to have the loss made good from the village common. His rights however are not dead but sleeping, and if new land again forms on that site, the property vests in the old owner to the extent of his loss, any excess being included in the village common land.

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labourers.

It is not customary for the agriculturists of this district to employ hired field labourers, as the majority of landowners cultivate holdings of their own and have no means to pay for hired labour. Field labourers are employed only by men with more land than they can themselves cultivate, and by female landowners and wards. They are engaged for the whole year and may be divided into two main classes. The superior class of labourers are called *lakhains*; they get Rs. 21 in cash per annum and one quarter of the produce of the land ploughed by a yoke of oxen which they supply. The owner of the land is responsible for all other expenses such as purchase of seed or bullocks, payment of Government demand, &c. These *lakhains* are usually Jats. Secondly, there is a labour class called *kāmans*, who are also Jats. Their wages are Rs. 2 per month with daily food and clothing. The cost of the latter, which consists of a sheet (*chadar*), a waistcloth and a turban, amounts to Rs. 4 per annum. 4 annas worth of tobacco per mensem is also supplied to each man.

Besides these two classes there are *sepis* and *athris* village menials, who are not regular workers, and are either remunerated by a share of the crop when reaped, or when employed temporarily get fixed a daily wage of from 2 to 3 annas per diem. They come chiefly from the sweeper (*Chuhra*) and shoemaker (*Mochi*) castes. The wages of the regular agricultural labourers have greatly increased of late years, owing to the great demand for unskilled labour on canal, railway, and other public works within the district. Harvest labourers are usually remunerated by being allowed to take away each evening a bundle (*bharri*) of sheaves, which ordinarily yields 6 to 10 seers of grain. They also receive one meal while at work. Women employed in cotton picking receive one-sixth to one-eighth of the cotton, and the great increase in the cultivation of this crop on the Chenáb Canal has created such a demand for this kind of labour that in some recent years the cotton pickers whose ranks are swelled now by Changar women from Siálkot, Lahore and Amritsar, have been known to receive as much as one-fourth of the fibre.

Petty
grantees. village

The figures in the margin show the number of persons

Tahsil.	Number of grants.	Number of grantees.	Area.	Revenue.
Gujránwála ...	77	94	153	159
Wazīrabad ...	32	38	82	137
Hāfizabad ...	6	6	16	19
Khāngah Dográn	19	20	52	41
Total ...	134	158	303	356

holding service grants from the village and the area so held. These grants were originally made by the village community, generally from the village common, and their tenure was subject to the performance of village service, so that the proprietors had full control over them. This was fit and proper as the grantees were in most cases village menials Mirásis, Chaukidárs, Prohits or artisans,

performing personal service, or persons in charge of village institutions, e. g. the *fakir* of the *takiya* or *khaugah*, the *imám* or *ulma* of the mosque, and the village community was the natural authority to decide whether the service was rendered. As the result however of the regular and first revised settlement all these grants were maintained under the authority of Government, and the village community's power of interference or disposal was practically abolished. Under the new settlement all personal grants have been resumed, the zamíndárs being given the option of excluding the land from assessment in the *báchh*, or distribution of the revenue, while grants in favour of village institutions, such as mosques, *dharmsáls*, &c., are maintained as before for the term of settlement subject to good conduct and service of the institution, if it has been found that the owners desire the continuance of the grant.

The *dharat* and *thánapati* are village dues which are worthy of notice as peculiar to this part of the country. The *dharat* is in theory a voluntary payment to the proprietary body or its representative for the services of the village weighman (*dharwai*) nominated by the owners. In practice it is occasionally an octroi or impost on trade, and more usually is a compulsory due levied from the purchaser, generally at the rate of a pice in the rupee on all agricultural produce sold within the village, for village custom requires that all such transactions should be carried out through the medium of the village weighman. The proprietary body usually leases out the proceeds of this due to the village weighman in consideration of a fixed annual payment varying from a few rupees to several hundred in some of the large estates in Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn. The income is either like *malba* spent on village objects or hospitality through the *lambardár*, or where considerable is distributed among owners according to shares or revenue liability. The right to levy this due is jealously guarded by the old proprietors, but is often resisted by the money-lending and trading element in the village. The Courts have sometimes refused to enforce it through failure to comprehend its origin and meaning. The *thánapati* is a seignorial due levied by the owners of a village on the marriage of daughters of non-owners. The proceeds of the due varying from Re. 1 to Rs. 5 per marriage are generally considered the perquisites of the village Brahmin or Mirási.

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Village dues.

Table No. XXXII gives statistics of sales and mortgages of land. Tables Nos. XXXIII and XXXIII A. show the operations of the Registration Department, and Table No. XXXIX the extent of civil and revenue litigation. Since the revised settlement of 1868 the transfers of land by sale or mortgage have increased to an alarming extent. At that time less than 1 per cent. had been sold and about 1 per cent. was under mortgage. At the recent revision of settlement

Poverty or wealth
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by Mr. O'Dwyer, it was found that the proportion of area sold and mortgaged had risen respectively to 9·5 and 7 per cent. Put in another form it appears that no less than 16·5 per cent. of the total area and 21 per cent. of the cultivated area, paying 27 per cent. of the assessment has within 25 years changed hands by sale or usufructuary mortgage. Fifty-three per cent. of the area sold and 69 per cent. of the area mortgaged have passed into the hands of money-lenders who now hold 60 per cent. of the total area alienated including 13·5 per cent. of the total cultivation of the District.

In the two highly developed tahsils of Gujranwála and Wazirabad money-lenders are now in possession of 18 per cent. of the cultivation, and in the more backward Hafizabad tahsil they hold 9 per cent. On this subject Mr. O'Dwyer remarks as follows :—

The worst feature of this tendency of the land to pass out of the hands of the old owners is that the process is becoming more rapid every year. The bad harvests of 1868-73 gave it the first impetus, but the area transferred in that period was only 2 per cent. of the whole. It continued to increase slowly but steadily up to 1884 when the era of bad years that then set in gave it an enormous stimulus, and in the eight years 1885-93 no less than 14 per cent. of the cultivated area was alienated, viz., 7 per cent. sold, 7 per cent. mortgaged, the sale and mortgage money amounting to over 24 lakhs. There is at present no indication of any check or re-action, and unless something is done to restrict the expanding credit of the proprietary body or to save them from the usurer by a system of State loans, accompanied by a more liberal and elastic revenue policy than has prevailed in the past, the process of expropriation must continue to increase, as the value of land rises and the profits derived from and the consideration attached to its possession increase.

Causes of aliena-
tion.

The enquiry into the influences which within the last 25 years have brought about this enormous alienation of landed property, is too wide and debateable a subject for discussion in this report. The matter has been treated at some length in the assessment reports, and the causes as there given may be here summarised. Apart from such special causes or bad harvests or agricultural calamities the main causes are two :—

- I. More people are seeking to acquire land, owing to—
 - (a) the increased profits to be derived from it on account of the moderate standard of assessment introduced at last settlement and the high prices of produce since prevailing ;
 - (b) the increased consideration attached to its possession ;
 - (c) the great accumulation of money, formerly hoarded up but now made available for investment, and the decrease of those local forms of investment, e.g., the carrying trade which formerly absorbed surplus capital, so that all local capital now seeks the land which is regarded as the

safest and most permanent security. A capitalist who will look for 12 per cent. on advances on the best personal security will gladly invest in land even if the profits on his capital be only 4 per cent.

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- II. The old owners have more frequent occasions and greater facilities for parting with their land, be- Cause of aliena-
cause— tion.
- (a) the great expansion of credit which has taken place since last settlement owing to the moderation of the State demand, the higher prices of produce, and the consequent enhanced value of land, has discouraged thrift and encouraged them to extravagance ;
- (b) their expenditure and standard of living are based on the income of good years, and are not contracted to meet the exigencies of bad. Formerly in bad years a self-acting law compelled them to live on what was actually produced, as they had no credit to supplement it. Now they find it easier to borrow than to alter their scale of living ;
- (c) our inelastic revenue system does not assist them in meeting unforeseen losses, the collapse of a well, the loss of a pair of bullocks, and in such necessities they have to borrow at heavy interest ;
- (d) for want of grazing grounds the zamíndárs of Gujranwála and Wazírabad do not breed their own cattle, and have therefore no reserve to draw upon when they lose their cattle in the frequent epidemics of cattle disease. This is the explanation of the greater embarrassment of the zamíndárs in these two tahsils and of the comparative solvency of the Háfizabad zamíndárs who have ample pasture and are in a position to breed their own cattle ;
- (e) rents being as a rule fixed in cash or grain (*chikota*) and not varying according to the produce of each harvest (*batai*), the owners of mortgaged land who are also generally the cultivators often fall into arrears and these arrears go on accumulating against them at heavy compound interest from harvest to harvest, making it almost impossible for them to extricate themselves ;
- (f) mutual jealousies prevent them from resorting to one another for loans, and from transferring the land to relations even when the latter are able and willing to take it ;

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tion.

- (g) they have no income of importance from any source but the land on which every burden is finally thrown ;
- (h) once they get into debt to the money-lenders, heavy interest, a short period of limitation combined with ignorance on the part of the debtor, unscrupulous cunning on the part of the creditor, make it difficult for them to extricate themselves, while a rigid and complex system of civil law, unsuited to the circumstances, unintelligible to the minds of the people, and administered in so far as it affects the great mass of the people in a narrow and technical spirit by a class chiefly drawn from the money-lending or capitalist class who have little sympathy with the agriculturists, hastens the operation of the natural causes which tend towards alienation.
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CHAPTER IV.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

SECTION A.—AGRICULTURE, ARBORICULTURE
AND LIVE-STOCK.

Table No. XIV gives the general figures for cultivation and irrigation in the district; the rainfall at different places in the district, and its distribution over the year, are shown in Tables III, III A and III B. Of the total area of the district, amounting to 2,928 square miles, only 46 per cent. or less than half is now under cultivation. Of the balance, five-sixths are culturable, one-sixth is unfit for cultivation, consisting of roads, canals, railways, sites of towns and villages, beds of rivers or nalás, or land which is quite unproductive. Though the proportion of uncultivated land is still very large, the development since annexation has been enormous. Since 1853-54, when the first regular settlement was made, cultivation has increased by nearly 400,000 acres or over 80 per cent., while population within the same period has increased only 25 per cent. The increase has been greatest in the western part of the district where it has received a powerful stimulus within the last few years by the construction of the Chenáb Canal. The breaking up of waste land all over the district is still steadily proceeding. In Wazírabad it is slow, and the land recorded as culturable in that tahsíl is mostly unprofitable *kallar* not likely to repay the cost of cultivation, though the rainfall in that tract is adequate and fairly certain. In Gujranwála the expansion of cultivation is fairly rapid, especially on unirrigated soil in the Bángar and Adjoining Bár circles; in Háfizabad the increase is very rapid in canal irrigated estates, slow in the others, while in the new tahsíl Khángah Dográn, where the culturable land is of excellent quality though the rainfall is small, and where there is the greatest field for the extension of canal irrigation, cultivation is increasing by leaps and bounds. The following remarks of Mr. Morris as to the cultivation of the district still apply, though of late years industry has been considerably stimulated by the high prices and canal irrigation.

“The cultivation of this district is by no means superior, and will not bear comparison with that of Sialkót or Gujrat. This may be attributed partly to the general inferiority of the soil, and partly to the idle habits and nomad character of the people. I do not mean to say that first-rate cultivation is not to be met with; on the contrary, in some of the *khádir* and *charkhari mahal* villages, the soil is as highly manured, and the land as well cultivated as in any estates in the Panjab; but this is the exception. Such instances are rare, and generally speaking the cultivators are lazy and idle, and bear much more the character of graziers than agriculturists. Nor is this to be wondered at when we consider that the majority of the villages were founded during the reign of Ranjít Singh, or less than 50 years ago. Prior to this, the present cultivators or their ancestors were graziers, leading a nomad life, and tending their herds in the wide and extended tracts of the *bár*.”

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Agriculture, Arboriculture and Live-stock.

General character of the cultivation.

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The seasons for sowing and harvesting the principal food grains are shown below. Further information is given in the detailed notice of the several staples:—

Agricultural sea-
son.

Grain.	Seed time.	Harvest.
Moth and <i>jowár</i>	27th June to 27th July.	1st Nov. to 15th Nov.
Maize, rice, <i>máng</i> and <i>másh</i> ...	28th July to 15th Aug.	Do.
<i>Kangni</i> and china	15th July to 28th July.	29th Sept. to 14th Oct.
<i>Kangni</i> and china	10th Feb. to 10th March.	29th April to 10th May.
Gram, and wheat and gram ...	15th Sept. to 15th Oct.	10th April to 10th May.
Wheat, and wheat and barley	15th Oct. to 1st Dec.	Do.

The success of the kharif crop depends on the continuance of the rains well into September; but the September rains in this district are very precarious, and of late years have shown a tendency to fail altogether even when the monsoon rains have been heavy. The result is that the kharif crop which is mainly unirrigated, if it does not fail largely, is much reduced in outturn and this is one explanation of the movement so marked in recent years to substitute spring for autumn crops.

The rabi crop benefits most by favourable rains for ploughing and sowing in September and October, and if it once sprouts a timely fall in January or February will bring it to maturity. The distribution of the rainfall is shown in Tables Nos. III, III A, and III B. The reporting stations are however more favourably situated than the rest of the tahsil, and Mr. O'Dwyer judges that the average fall in Gujranwála is 19 inches, Wazirabad 22 and Háfizabad 15, the mean for the whole district may be taken as 19 inches. It is however liable to enormous fluctuations in different years; thus in 1890-91 the fall was 34 inches, whereas in 1891-92 it was only 9. There is a corresponding variation in the amount of unirrigated crops sown, for when the rains are short or ill-distributed the *báráni* soils are left unsown altogether, or those soils only are sown which are cool and retentive of moisture.

Soils.

The land of this Doáb may be divided into two grand classes—the low and high lands, generally known by the following terms, *hetár* and *utár*—the former signifying the land in the vicinity of the river, or in any way subject to its influence; and the latter, the tract within this and towards the centre of the Doáb. The *hetár* is again sub divided into *bet* and *dháya*, signifying respectively that subject to inundation and that free from

it; whilst the *utár* is distinguished by a variety of terms according to its locality. Thus in the north and well cultivated tracts it is known as *bángar*, *maira*, *des*, &c.; whilst in the south it is called *barej*, *naka* and *bár*. The different varieties of soil chiefly known and recognized are described below :—

Gora, an artificial soil highly manured and growing only the best crops, commonly found round villages and wells.

Rohi, the finest natural soil, a stiff clay, dark or reddish dark in colour. It breaks up in clods and is difficult to work but most productive when well cultivated; it does not require manure and is best suited for wheat and rice. It is chiefly found in lowlying lands along drainage channels and around *jhils* and *chambhs* where water lies. It is therefore most common in the Charkhari circles adjoining Siálkot where a great many natural channels, the Aik, Nandanwah, Khot, &c., bring down the drainage in the rains. It requires much irrigation.

Dosáhi or *missi*, a fine clayey soil with an admixture of sand, which makes it easy to work. It is not usually top dressed, but is manured by cattle being folded on it. When so manured it grows the best crops; without manure ordinary crops. It is a capital working soil, wonderfully retentive of moisture and therefore well suited for unirrigated crops. It is most common in the Adjoining Bár and Bár circles and in the Wazirabad Charkhari.

Maira, is a loose loam with less clay than sand and varying much in quality. It is easily worked but wanting in strength and is most suitable for the lighter kharíf crops, *moth*, *múng* and *til*. Some varieties grow gram and cotton very well where the sub-soil is a clayey stratum. It is common in all the highlying Bángar circles, the soil of which is much inferior to that of the rest of the district.

Tibba is the name given to the worst kinds of *maira*, in which sand largely preponderates. It is a very light poor soil on which irrigation has little effect, but with favourable rains grows good crops of *moth*, *múng* and barley. It is rarely sown with rabi crops or if sown, produces only very inferior barley.

Kallar, a sour and barren clay, difficult to cultivate and not ordinarily productive; with canal irrigation, however it produces excellent crops of rice. *Kallar* is common throughout the district, but especially in the Wazirabad tahsíl, the Charkhari circle in Gujranwála and the Bángar circle of Háfizabad, where its influence on the cultivation, which when affected by it, is known as *kalrati*, can be traced everywhere. It has been found that when steadily sown with rice for a few years and irrigated with canal water, the *kallar* improves in quality and becomes capable of growing barley and even wheat; but where the subsoil drainage is defective, or the water level near the surface, evaporation under a hot sun brings to the surface the latent

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magnesia salts held in solution or in deposit in the form of *reh* efflorescence which is fatal to cultivation.

Bela, or the tract lying next to the river, not much above its level, is generally new land, sometimes with fine alluvial soil, but often much injured by sand. It produces naturally fine grass, and affords fine pasturage to the villages in the vicinity. The jungle known as *jhau* abounds in this. The river villages of the Háfizabad have very fine *belás* attached to them; they often extend for miles and form very valuable pasturage grounds. In years of drought all the upland villages send their cattle to these *belás* to graze.

The above distinctions of soil represent local varieties distinguished according to the composition of the soil.

In the assessment and distribution of the land revenue however, no effect was given to the local varieties which are used rather to describe the general nature of the land than its relative value for assessment purposes. The classification adopted for the latter purpose at the recent and previous settlements is based on the absence or presence of, and the source of, irrigation, *viz.*:—

Cháhi, irrigated from a well.

Nahri, irrigated from a canal.

Cháhi nahri, irrigated or irrigable from a well and a canal.

Ábi, irrigated from a pond or tank.

Sailába, inundated by river flood.

Báráni, unirrigated.

According to the most recent statistics the proportion of each class of soil to the total cultivation was as follows:—

Cháhi	56
Cháhi nahri	2
Nahri	13
Sailába	4
Báráni	25

The *ábi* area, 1,063 acres, is so small as not to require separate record. It has usually been grouped with *cháhi*.

Well irrigation.

Wells are, therefore, the mainstay of the agriculture of the district. The wells are nearly always lined with brick-work, in which case they are known as *pakka* and are permanent and durable structures costing from Rs. 150 to Rs. 750 according to the depth of the water, &c., and lasting from 30 to 100 years. Without the brick-work they are known as *kacha*, being lined only with grass or reeds. *Kacha* wells are very rare in this district, being found only in the lowlands near the river, where the action of the floods makes it inadvisable to sink much money in masonry wells. They cost from Rs. 20 to Rs. 50, irrigate only a few acres and last for only 2 or 3 years.

There are no less than 12,248 masonry wells at work, with an average area of 39 acres of *cháhi* land attached to each, and taking the average cost as Rs. 350, these represent a capital of 37 lakhs sunk in the masonry and wood-work alone. For extracting the water the Persian-wheel is in universal use. The number of oxen required to work a well efficiently varies of course with the depth of the water and the area to be irrigated, but it may be roughly laid down that an average well with 40 acres of land attached will require six yokes of oxen in the Charkhari and Bángar circles. In the Bár oxen give place to buffaloes which have more draught power but are shorter lived and unable to work in the hot weather, except at night. Eight yokes are required, two yokes working at a time on the deeper wells, where the spring level is over 50 feet. Taking the average value of the cattle on a well as Rs. 400, they represent a capital of 49 lakhs. The well tract *par excellence* is comprised in the two assessment circles known as the Charkhari (from *charkhar*, a Persian-wheel) mahal, which occupy the eastern portion of the Gujránwála and Wazírabád tahsils adjoining Siálkot. Here the water level ranges from 20 to 32 feet below the surface, and about 90 per cent. of the cultivation is attached to wells. Along the river in the Chenáb circles of Wazírabád and Háfzabad the spring level varies from 12 to 20 feet. Wells therefore cost little and are easily and cheaply worked. Water is everywhere throughout the district, except in a few Bár villages, sweet and plentiful. As the distance from the Siálkot border and the river increases towards the west and south, water becomes less accessible and the cost of sinking and working the wells becomes greater till the Bár is reached where it becomes almost prohibitive. Examining the figures by tahsils, it is found that well irrigation is most highly developed in Wazírabád where 80 per cent. of the cultivation is attached to wells, the spring level varying from 12 feet in the valley of the Chenáb to 30 feet in the uplands, and the average area per well is 34 acres which is not more than can be efficiently worked within the year. The Gujránwála tahsil comes next with 71 per cent. of the cultivation irrigated from wells, the water level varying from 25 feet on the east side adjoining the Siálkot district to 55 feet in the Bár uplands on the south-west adjoining the Háfzabad tahsil, and the average area per well is 40 acres. The Háfzabad tahsil has less facilities for well irrigation than the other two, as the water level over most of the area is so deep that the expense of sinking wells and maintaining sufficient cattle to work them is very heavy, and in some cases prohibitive. The proportion of the area so irrigated is 40 per cent., the water level varies from 15 feet in the Chenáb lowlands to 80 feet in the Bár, and the average area per well is 48 acres which is far in excess of what a well can irrigate in a year.

From the above remarks it will be understood that though 60 per cent. of the cultivation is protected by wells, the success

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of agriculture, at least in Gujránwála and Háfizabad where the spring level is deep and the well areas large, to a great extent depends on the rainfall. If rains are timely and favourable, they assist, and supplement the well irrigation and enable the whole well area to be put under irrigated or unirrigated crops. If rains are poor and badly distributed, the sowings contract or an attempt is made to spread the well water over a larger area than it can command with advantage, and unirrigated crops which in favourable years are largely grown on part of the well areas are not sown at all. Moreover the crops are laid under heavy contributions for fodder for the well cattle, and not only the outturn but the area of crops is much reduced.

The arrangements for watering are dependent on the number of shares, each share having a stated period allotted to it, called *vári*. If there are only two or three shares in a well, then the *vári* will extend to eight watches—24 hours; if four shares and upwards, the period allotted to the *vári* is four watches or 12 hours. The *vári* of 12 hours is by far the most common, especially in the *charkhari maháls* adjoining the *bár* and *bár* estates. In these there are generally 4 *váris*: in the *bángar* often six; whilst in the *khádir* we find 8 and 10 *váris*. In the *khádir* one yoke of bullocks will work for two watches, consequently two yokes will work a *vári*; whilst in the *bár* one yoke cannot work more than one watch, so that four yokes are required to work a *vári* of four watches.

The amount of land irrigated by a well depends on the nature of the soil, depth of water from the surface, and condition of the well, but most of all on the number of yokes it is worked by. A *kámil* well with 8 yokes, worked day and night, will irrigate 40 acres of land. This, however, cannot be reckoned on with certainty, and 30 acres is the average in ordinary years; whilst in years of scarcity or drought not more than 20 or 25 acres can be calculated on. In *bár* land, one yoke is equal to irrigating five acres in the year; whilst in the *bángar* and *khádir* it reaches seven or eight acres. The soils of the *khádir* and *bángar* tracts, however, absorb more water than that of the *bár*. Buffaloes are mostly used in the *bár* and *nakka*. They are also coming into use in the *bángar*, but in the *khádir* inferior bullocks can do the work. Buffaloes are superior in strength to bullocks, but cannot work in the sun so well. The expenses of irrigation are least in the *khádir*, and greatest in the *bár*; in the latter, the water is often so far from the surface that it is by no means uncommon to see two yokes of buffaloes working together at one well. In *rohi* land the rabi crops preponderate, whilst in the *maira* the kharíf have slighty the advantage.

Taking 30 acres as the normal area of crops raised per well in a year the classification will be something as follows:—
Rabi 20 acres—wheat 15, barley 2, oilseeds 2, miscellaneous 1.

Kharif 10 acres—2 sugarcane, 2 cotton, 2 maize, 1 rice, 3 fodder and miscellaneous. In the Charkhari circles nearly every crop, down to fodder for cattle, requires artificial irrigation. The only crops not so irrigated are gram, *moth*, *mung*, *goji* (wheat and gram) and part of the *jowár*. The crops regularly watered and always requiring artificial irrigation are as follows:—Rabi: garden stuffs from 6 to 20 waterings; wheat, barley, *goji* 5 or 6 times, wheat generally getting one more watering than the others; Kharif: sugarcane 16 to 25 waterings; cotton 5 or 6; maize 6 or 7; mustard, turnips and carrots always irrigated more or less. *Jhallárs* are used like wells, they are built on the bank of a stream or pond, the water being brought under by a cut. A *jhallár* will irrigate from 25 to 30 acres on an average. For rice cultivation a *dhingli* is sometimes used. This consists of a long pole swinging on a *fulcrum* and with a bucket attached at the end.

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Well irrigation.

The process of constructing a well and the details of the cost have been fully described in page 143 of the Lahore *Gazetteer*, and the description applies equally in this district.

Canal-irrigation which was unknown eight years ago has now become a prominent and increasing feature in the agriculture of this district.

Canal-irrigation.

For the following note as to the history and progress of the Chenáb Canal the editor is indebted to Mr. Sidney Preston, Superintending Engineer, Chenáb Canal Circle:—

The physical features, &c., of the river have already been described. The maximum discharge of the river in high flood had, prior to the completion of the weir at Khánki, been estimated to approximate to 250,000 cubic feet per second, but it has now become possible to gauge this more accurately, and this was done in the big flood of the 21st July 1893 and has been variously estimated at from 650,000 to 750,000 cubic feet per second. It is obviously impossible to gauge such a river as the Chenáb while in flood with mathematical accuracy, but there can be no doubt that the discharge at the head of the Chenáb Canal in maximum flood is not less than 700,000 cubic feet per second.

The minimum discharge is of course easily obtainable, and was observed on the 19th January 1888 when 3884 cubic feet per second only were flowing in the channel opposite the Garhi Gola Head of the Inundation Canal. This small discharge obtained for a few days only, and the following is probably the average volume showing the six cold weather months:—

October	7,000	cubic feet per second.
November	5,500	" "
December	6,000	" "
January	6,000	" "
February	7,000	" "
March	8,000	" "

The necessity for irrigating the Rechna Doáb was first recognized in 1862 when some levels were taken through the Siálkot district Chenáb Canal Project. with a view to proving the feasibility of providing irrigation from the Tawi river. Two reports on the subject were submitted in December 1863 and October 1864 but were confined to the country about Siálkot and above Gujranwála; as, however, the data were considered too untrustworthy to frame any scheme on, the Chief Engineer declined to recommend the proposal. Nothing further was done between 1866 and 1872, but in the autumn of the latter year operations were commenced for providing a complete level chart of the whole of the Doáb with the view to the preparation of a project for its irrigation.

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The field work lasted two years, and in 1875-76 a project which included one perennial and two inundation canals was prepared and submitted for orders, but in reviewing the project the Government of India remarked "that the Governor-General in Council, having regard to the admitted insufficiency of the estimates, "to the uncertainty in the amount and the certainty of great delay in reaching "the full amount of the returns, did not feel justified at present in embarking "in a scheme of such magnitude."

Between 1877 and 1882 the Chenáb Inundation Canal alone received any attention. In the latter year the Government of India called for a report of the Irrigation Projects under consideration which were likely to prove sufficiently remunerative to be classed as Productive Public Works. After careful consideration of all the schemes which had been proposed the Chief Engineer selected four which included the Rámnagar Inundation Canal (the second of the two mentioned above), and an estimate for it was prepared and submitted in 1882 under the name of the Chenáb Canal Project.

This estimate was sanctioned in August 1884 for Rs. 31,93,851 as follows:—

	Rs.
Direct cash expenditure	29,35,589
Indirect charges such as Capitalization of abatement of Land Revenue.	1,23,885
Loss by Exchange
Leave and Pension Allowance
Interest during construction	1,34,377
Total	31,93,851

The head of this inundation canal was situated on the left bank of the river Chenáb near the village of Garhi Gola about 14 miles below Wazirabad, and 8 above the town of Rámnagar from which it had originally taken its name.

The canal as designed consisted of 19 miles of main line and 156 of branches, with a maximum capacity of 1,800 cubic feet per second, and was designed to command 881 square miles of country, of which 164 square miles were uncultivated crown waste bringing in grazing revenue only. The depth of water in the main canal was estimated to be 7 feet, and the bed width 109 feet. It was anticipated that 144,000 acres equal to 225 square miles would be annually irrigated, which amounted to 25·4 per cent. of the gross area commanded.

A Division for the construction of this canal was formed on the 1st January 1883, but some time was necessarily lost in preliminary operations, collecting establishment, &c., so that ground was not actually broken until the 29th July of that year, and the canal was opened for irrigation on the 9th July 1887.

The difficulty, not to say impossibility, of satisfactorily working so large a canal as an inundation system soon became apparent. The head reach silted up almost solid early in the cold season and rendered it difficult to mature the kharif crops or to give watering for the rabi. The necessity for permanent head works with weir across the river which would allow of water being forced into the canal was at once recognised and an estimate with this object was prepared in 1889 and was sanctioned in the same year.

It was decided after careful consideration that the weir should be built opposite the village of Khánki situated about 8 miles below Wazirabad and 6 above the old inundation head at Garhi Gola, a feeder canal being dug from there to join the old canal above the regulator and escape head which had been built at Chenáwán.

Work was commenced in the cold weather of 1889-90 immediately sanction was obtained and pushed on with great vigour—the works in the river and the feeder canal being completed in January 1892 in time to give final waterings to the rabi crops which had been sown on the inundation canal supply; the first crop of the present perennial Chenáb Canal was however the kharif of 1892.

It had always been recognised that with a permanent weir it would be possible to command the whole of the Rechna Doáb, and after the commencement of work on it an entirely fresh and complete estimate was prepared for a large canal to

irrigate the whole Doáb. This was sanctioned by the Secretary of State in August 1892, and work on the extended project at once commenced. The amount of this estimate is as follows:—

Head work expenditure	Rs.	2,56,84,175
Indirect charges—		
Capitalization of abatement of Land Revenue	2,55,698	
License and Pension Allowances	5,76,093	
		8,31,791
Total		2,65,15,966

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The final project of the Chenáb Canal may now be briefly described. It utilises all the channels of the old inundation canal, but the main line will be widened from a width of 109 feet to 250, and the maximum depth of water increased from 7·0 feet to 10·5 feet. The two largest branches of the old canal, the Mián Ali and Rakh Branches, have been widened and increased in length, and two new ones, the Jhang and Gogaira of still greater capacity, are designed to irrigate as far as Jhang and Shorkot to the north and to the old Harappa and Saráí Sidhu tahsís of the Montgomery and Mooltan districts respectively, on the south.

The full supply of the canal will, it is estimated, eventually approximate to 10,000 cubic feet per second and will command an area of 3,000,000 acres of which 500,000 acres may be irrigated annually.

By the end of 1893-94 the state of the project was as follows:—The head works, consisting of the weir across the river, the under-slucices and head regulator and river defence works were complete with the exception of certain alterations to the original design, the necessity for which has been demonstrated by the high floods of 1892 and 1893 which have exceeded all previous records all down the river. The widening of the main line from Chenáwán to its end at Nánúana (a distance of 32 miles) was carried out with the exception of some of the earth-work and the completion of two of the bridges. The Kot Nikka Branch and rájbahás of the main line had been completed before the inundation canal was opened in 1887, but a few additions were subsequently made to them, and these were finished by the end of 1893-94.

At Nánúana where the main line ends, the canal trifurcates. Two branches, the Rakh and Mián Ali, which irrigate almost entirely the crown waste land, were entirely complete, while the Jhang Branch, which was only commenced in December 1892, was nearly completed for the distance it traverses in the Gujranwála district.

There is still another Branch, the Gogaira, to construct, which will take out of the main line opposite the village of Sagar at mile 288, and after passing the village of Chuharkáná to the east will swing round to a south-western direction for the irrigation of the southern portion of the Doáb. The line of this branch was lined out during 1893-94 and land acquired, but want of funds prevented construction being started.

The length of channels constructed to the end of 1893-94 in the Gujranwála district is as follows in canal miles of 5,000 feet:—

Main Line	Canal miles.
Branches—	40
Kot Nikka Branch	18
Rakh Branch	20½
Mián Ali Branch	27
	<hr/>
	74½
Distributaries—	
Major—	
Main Line	67½
Kot Nikka Branch	80½
Rakh Branch	43
Mián Ali Branch	95
	<hr/>
Minor—	286
Main Line	40
Kot Nikka Branch	24
Rakh Branch	72
Mián Ali Branch	76
	<hr/>
	212
Total completed channels in Gujranwála district	<hr/> <hr/> 612½

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The area commanded by the canal in the Gujránwála district is estimated at 707,166 acres, divided as follows :—

Wazírabad tahsil	19,358 acres.
Háfizabad "	406,621 "
Khángah Dográn "	281,187 "

of this 221,000 acres are situated in crown waste, and the remainder 486,166 acres in settled villages. The irrigation effected from the canal in the Gujránwála district since it was opened has been as follows :—

Year.	Tahsil.	Kharif.	Rabi.	Total.
		Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
1887-88	Wazírabad	812
	Háfizabad	10,042
	Total	10,854
1888-89	Wazírabad	1,485	37	1,522
	Háfizabad	25,432	20,090	46,122
	Total	26,917	20,727	47,644
1889-90	Wazírabad	1,879	6	1,885
	Háfizabad	25,498	11,925	37,423
	Total	27,377	11,931	39,308
1890-91	Wazírabad	2,837	...	2,837
	Háfizabad	31,758	17,795	49,553
	Total	34,595	17,795	52,390
1891-92	Wazírabad	1,981	...	1,981
	Háfizabad	21,972	11,571	33,543
	Total	23,953	11,571	35,524
1892-93	Wazírabad	1,912	177	2,089
	Háfizabad	67,945	50,390	127,344
	Total	69,857	50,576	120,433
1893-94	Wazírabad	1,529	103	1,632
	Háfizabad	68,475	77,052	145,527
	Total	70,004	77,155	147,159

The expenditure incurred on this project to the end of 1893-94 has been as follows :—

	Rs.
Head Works	35,37,086
Main Line	55,19,583
Distributaries	12,29,361
Drainage Works	12,334
Total Works	1,02,98,364
Establishment	17,39,593
Tools and Plant	4,28,284
Suspense Account	4,08,498
Grand Total	1,28,74,749

System of working. The canal system consists of—

- i. A main canal;
- ii. Main branches tailing off the main canal;
- iii. Major distributaries tailing out of the main line or branches;
- iv. Minor distributaries tailing out of the major distributaries;
- v. Village water-courses tailing out of the major or minor distributaries.

All the channels detailed above except the last (village water-courses) are constructed, maintained and controlled by Government, the last are constructed, maintained and controlled by the villagers.

The principles aimed at, and with few exceptions attained, are:—

- 1st. That water should be delivered in a Government channel to the boundary of each village from which points the village distribut-ing channels are made by the villagers.
- 2nd. That two villages should not have an interest in the same water-course.

The scheme of the canal contemplates sufficient water being given to the old or established villages of the district to irrigate 40 per cent. of the area com-manded annually, which percentage is increased to 50 in the case of all the new villages formed out of the crown waste land of the Gujranwála district. In both cases it is estimated that the proportion of kharif to rabi may be as 2 to 3. Thus in the old settled villages the area of kharif contemplated is 16 per cent. and of rabi 24 per cent. of the area commanded, while in the new villages these percentages are 20 and 30 respectively.

The present canal was designed to carry 1,800 cubic feet per second, but the demands for the new colonies have been so great that as much as 2,300 cubic feet per second have been forced down it. The altered estimated capacity of the canal will probably be 10,000 cubic feet. The ultimate duty estimated for this supply is 55 acres per cubic feet in the kharif and 120 acres in the rabi. The duty in the kharif has already exceeded, the estimate having been 54 acres in 1893 and 72 acres in 1894. In the rabi the progress has not been quite so great, the duty attained having been 65 acres in 1892-93 and 100 acres in 1893-94.

The rates in force in the old villages have been already mentioned, those of the new are given in the separate account of the new colony furnished by the Colonization Officer.

About 38,000 acres, or over 4 per cent. of the cultivation, and its influence on agriculture have been briefly referred to in Chapter I. The crops grown on *sailába* land are *másh*, *jowár*, *bája*, maize and rice in the kharif; wheat, barley, *massar* in the rabi. Kharif crops are little sown owing to the danger of floods, and are usually poor in quality and yield. The cultivation is necessarily rough owing to the sodden state of the soil at sowing time. Of the rabi crops, wheat and *massar* (pease) are the most important. They are sown after the autumn floods subside. *Massar* is grown on newly formed lands of inferior quality which receive only one or two ploughings, the object being to test what the land is worth. Wheat is more carefully cultivated on the older and firmer soils. The land, however, is manured and rarely weeded, and as only the inferior kinds are grown, the outturn is usually poor. The produce on *sailába* lands depends primarily on the inundations having been full and well timed, and in a less degree on the crop being aided

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by the rain after it has sprouted. The crops suffer much from weeds, and in addition to the danger from untimely floods, they are also liable to the ravages of field rats and of pigs. The cost of cultivation is, however, so light that the agriculturist recoups himself with even a small outturn.

The success of unirrigated (*bārāni*) cultivation, which is of increasing importance in this district, occupying now 25 per cent. of the area against 19 per cent. at the revised settlement of 1867-68, is of course directly dependent on the rainfall. This matter has already been alluded to in Chapter I. The unirrigated cultivation is in fact of greater importance than the above figures would seem to show, for in a year of favourable rainfall not only is all the purely *bārāni* land put under crops, but considerable part of the well areas are also sown as *bārāni*. Thus in 1893-94 no less than 36 per cent. of the crops were unirrigated, against 42 per cent. raised with well irrigation. The chief unirrigated crops are *jowār*, *bājra*, *moth*, *mung*, *til*, and in favourable years, cotton in the kharif; gram, wheat and gram, barley and gram, and oilseeds in the rabi. There is a steadily growing tendency to substitute rabi for kharif crops on *bārāni* land. The kharif crops are very precarious, and however heavy the monsoon rains, they wither away unless the fall continues well into September, which it rarely does, while the spring crops if they once sprout need only moderate winter rains which are more certain than rain in September to bring them to maturity, and are more valuable when reaped.

This movement is coincident with the development of what is known as cultivation with the *kera* or drill. To prepare the land for rabi sowings it is ploughed once or twice before the monsoon rains, so as to let the moisture sink well into the ground. After the rains it is ploughed at least once, and then carefully rolled so as to press down and retain the moisture in the subsoil till the time comes for the rabi sowings. These usually take place in October, and the seed instead of being scattered broadcast (*chatta*) on the surface and then ploughed in, is sown deep in the cool moist subsoil with the drill. This ensures that the seed will germinate successfully, and if helped after sprouting by winter rains an excellent yield may be counted upon. The above process is of comparatively recent introduction in this district from the Mánjha and Málwa. It first came into use in the Bár, where the rainfall is so slight that the moisture has to be carefully preserved; but it is now coming into vogue even on well lands in the highly irrigated charkhari circles and is said to be working its way up the Doáb into Siáلكot.

Agricultural
operations.

The course of agricultural operations has been very fully and accurately described in pages 150—158 of the *Lahore Gazetteer*, and as the remarks are generally applicable *mutatis mutandis* to all Central Punjab districts they have been quoted *in extenso*.

The grain used for seeding generally comes from the previous year's crop, or if that is exhausted then it is taken on loan from the money-lenders. Generally speaking, on well-irrigated lands the stock of the seed is seldom changed; but under the influence of canal irrigation old seed is said to change colour and a fresh stock must be brought in from time to time. Those cultivators who are well off and have the leisure, sometimes pick out from the standing crop the ears of corn which appear in best condition, and these are kept for seed. Sowing in this district is generally done broadcast (*chutta*), except when the land is dry, when gram and wheat are sown by drill (*pura*). Indeed, gram is nearly always sown by drill. When the seed is very small it is sometimes mixed with earth before being sown, as otherwise it would be difficult to distribute it equally; cotton seeds are smeared together to prevent them from sticking together. Some crops are grown from seedlings (*paneri*) raised in nurseries, such as tobacco, chillies, onions and rice generally.

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The general name for plough in this district is *hal*, but the people recognise the distinction between the *hal* plough and the *munna* plough here as in other districts. The latter is the heavier kind of the two and is used chiefly in the Mánjha tract, the *hal* being reserved for the lowlands. They are both made almost entirely of wood, the ploughshare being the only solid iron; but the joints of wood are strengthened with iron fastenings. Altogether the *hal* has about three sets of iron in it and the *munna* somewhat more. The *munna* makes a deeper and broader furrow than the *hal* and requires heavier oxen. This perhaps is the chief reason why it is confined chiefly to the Mánjha, where alone in this district heavy oxen are to be found. The *hal* goes into the soil about 3 inches the first time of ploughing, 5 inches the second, and 7 or 8 inches the third. A *munna* plough may go deeper. The people recognise the value of deep ploughing, but say they cannot afford the cattle. A plough can do two-and-a-half kanáls a day, on the first ploughing, and three kanáls on the second. When the land has been ploughed once, the second time it is ploughed crossways. The field may be ploughed in sections up and down, or in narrowing circles, beginning round the edge of the field. If the cultivators can manage it and are in a hurry to finish, three or four ploughs work at a time, each following the other, but in a different furrow. They recognise the value of frequent ploughing and of having all the soil exposed to the air turn and turn about, but they do not often find leisure either to plough the land as often as they should or to begin ploughing early enough in the season to give the soil a fair chance. No ploughing is done unless the ground has been first moistened by rain or by artificial irrigation. The former does not always come, and the cultivators cannot find leisure for the latter. At the end just before sowings they are rushed for time and scamp the ploughing to the future detriment of the crop.

After ploughing the land is usually smoothed down with a heavy squared beam called *sohága*, dragged by one or two pairs of bullocks, the drivers of which stand on the beam. This is partly to break clods and pulverise the soil and partly to consolidate the surface with a view to the retention of the moisture in the soil. Generally in irrigated land for all crops but gram, each ploughing is followed by a rolling with the *sohága*. Unirrigated land should always be rolled as soon as it is ploughed, otherwise the moisture (water) on the strength of which the ploughing was done, will be lost to the soil, and the seed when sown will not germinate. Neglect to carry out this precaution results in much of the field sown lying completely bare for the rest of the season, as a matter of practice rolling is, as a rule, done once or twice in land under preparation for rabi sowings, except river flooded land which is seldom rolled for any crop but wheat. But unirrigated land intended for autumn sowings other than cotton is seldom rolled for want of leisure: the ploughing even on such land is very restricted. The summer rains on which such dry cultivation depends last a short time only, and the chief object is to get in the seed as early as possible after the rainy season has begun. For dry cotton sowings the land is often ploughed first as early as February or even January, and consequently a rolling to follow is indispensable if the soil is to be kept moist. After the sowings are done, the land may be ploughed and rolled once more to cover over and press down the seed.

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The last operation of all while the seed is still under the ground is to divide the land into compartments for greater convenience of irrigation. This, however, is confined in most part to well lands which are always partitioned off into small *kijáris* by means of ridges of earth raised by two men working at the instrument known as the *jañdra*, which is a large wooden rake: one man holds the handle and the other pulls a string attached to the handle at its lower end where it joins the rake. These *kijáris* on well lands are never more than one-eighth or one-tenth of an acre, and often are much less.

This duty known as *godi-choki* is carried out more or less carefully on well lands for the autumn crops, especially when the cultivators are Aráíns, Kamboh or Labánás. Wheat is never weeded notwithstanding the rapid growth of the onion weed known as *bhugát* or *piyázi*. The weeding instrument in use is *ramba* or trowel: near Lahore under special conditions weeding is sometimes done by running a light plough between the rows of sugarcane or maize or cotton. The crops which are most weeded in this district are chillies and maize. Wheat is never weeded. It is exceptional for weeding to be done on any soil but that under well irrigation. It is of course equally necessary, and sometimes more so on canal-irrigated land, but the cultivators do not seem able to find the time or energy. River flooded land requires more weeding than any other to get rid of the thistles that spring up after ploughings and choke the rising crop; there however weeding is seldom or never done.

It is curious to find that not even yet has the absolute necessity of re-invigorating their irrigated land every now and then with manure come home to the Mánjha cultivators. Of late they have been taking to it more, but even now large heaps of unused manure are seen lying outside the village settlements; no custom exists in the Mánjha of selling manure, though all the villages which have no irrigation could make a considerable profit thereby; and the Mánjha people actually give away the valuable substance described on page 14 under the name of *kallar*, asking no price for it. All this, however, will soon change. In well-irrigated tracts the addition of fertilisers to land to improve its productive powers is well understood and is practised by the people as far as their means permit. The principal manure is that of the farm yard, but as the droppings of cattle are largely needed for fuel, the fields do not get all these: also in well irrigated tracts the cattle are very poorly fed for most of the year, so that the supply at the best would be small compared with the amount of live-stock. The manure available for cultivation is collected in heaps outside the village settlement. Each share-holder knows his own heap. Every morning the cattle droppings not appropriated to make fuel cakes are carried out with the other house sweepings and refuse litter, and thrown on to the house heap. The refuse of non-proprietor's houses is either collected in a common heap which is divided among the share-holders at intervals, or if the non-proprietors have been divided off among different proprietors, they put their refuse on the heaps of their respective patrons. Little care, however, is exercised in collecting manure, and much more might be accumulated if the people would pay a little more attention to the cleanliness of their homes, of the village street ways, and the vicinity of their homesteads. Leaves are not swept up and the rags of all sorts disfigure the ground. Bones which were formerly looked on as useless are allowed to be taken off by sweepers for the mere trouble of collecting them: the sweepers make a fair profit by selling them for export to bone dealers at Lahore. Large cart loads of these may often be seen making their way to the city. From the manure heaps round the village, manure is carted to the land as it is required. Also there are contributions usually collected at the wells, where the working cattle stand for a good part of the year. The crop which is always heavily manured is maize, and on the manure laid down for it a second crop, usually fodder but sometimes wheat, follows the maize. Cane, chillies, tobacco and all sorts of vegetables other than melons only do well in manured land. Rice sometimes requires manure if the soil is hard and stiff. Wheat is never manured in this district and cotton seldom. The early *hári chári* should have some manure; other *gawár* wants none. The fields close to the homestead are fertilised naturally by the visits of the population, and if the land so benefitted is under cultivation, it is known as *nián* or *gora* land. Sometimes, however, the

breezy expanse of the village common is preferred for operations of nature, and that is nearly always waste land. The manure described above is thrown down on the land in amounts varying from forty to one hundred maunds an acre as far as one can judge from the different accounts given, and it is then ploughed into the soil. Another method of manuring is by throwing top-dressing over the crops when they are about a foot high. The dressing consists either of pulverised manure or of the *kallar* described on page 14. Tobacco and sugarcane, and if the cultivation is very good such as is found in Aráin villages near Lahore, cotton and wheat are treated in this way. It is not easy to say what proportion of the land in this district is manured. In 1868 it was reckoned that 8 per cent. was so treated; but that calculation must have been based largely upon the individual opinions of the subordinate officials engaged in surveying the land and cannot have been very reliable. It may be assumed without fear of much error that all the irrigated maize area, all land cropped with tobacco, sugarcane, chillies, poppies, which are grown only under irrigation, one-half the irrigated vegetable area, and one-quarter of the irrigated rice and autumn fodder crops should be classed as manured; this assumption points to about 6 per cent. of the total area under cultivation as being under manure, but it is quite possible that this calculation is short of the mark: certainly it is not over it.

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Manure is carried from the village to the fields or from one village to another in carts (*gaddi*). They are also used for transport of fodder, wood or *kankar* on hire; grain, however, is usually carried on donkeys or camels, the former carrying from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 maunds and the latter from 6 to 8 maunds. The village cart consists of triangular framework on wheels, the framework being about 12 feet long and four feet broad behind, but tapering to a point in front. This is the important part of the cart, and there lie any points of superiority one cart may have over another. The platform is known as the *gadh* and is made of the strongest wood, *shisham*; its strength varies with the quantity and quality of ironworking about it. The carts used in the Mánjha are much stronger than those made for the Hithár; the difference probably dating back from old days before the extension of the Bári Doáb Canal and railway, when many of the Mánjha villages kept large numbers of carts for hire, and subsisted chiefly on the earnings. Even as lately as 1880 during the Kábul War not a few of the Mánjha villagers amassed considerable sums by letting out their carts for Government transport. Now improvement of agriculture and extension of railways have largely superseded cart hire as a means of livelihood, but still there are villages near Lahore, from which carts are constantly let out on hire to *kankar* contractors. Apart from this, however, the Mánjha carts have to carry fodder and manure greater distances than the Hithár carts and should be stronger for this reason alone. A Mánjha cart of ordinary make costs Rs. 60 and a Hithár cart costs Rs. 40. The wheels of the one cost Rs. 20 and of the other Rs. 14 or Rs. 15. A cart intended for two pairs of oxen is of course larger than one intended for one pair, and requires to be made much stronger. If a *dobaldi* costs Rs. 60 a *chubaldi* of the same make would cost Rs. 80. One pair of bullocks is the usual number, but for a load over 20 maunds over an unmetalled road, two pairs would be necessary. The framework of the cart is fitted at its edge all round with a number of uprights, which are laced together with ropes: sometimes these are fitted with cross bars, over which a blanket, coarse sacking, or a moveable thatch made of light *sirki* can be stretched if necessary. Covered carts, however, of this kind are not easy to procure from the villages when required in wet weather. The animals accustomed to draw these carts are inferior, the best bullocks in Mánjha being kept at work in the fields.

Some sort of fencing is generally put up to protect fields which adjoin a frequented road or open space near the village. Similarly the chief paths near the well, leading to and from the well, are fenced on either side. The fences are made of boughs of trees, bushes or anything that comes handy. Important crops like sugarcane are surrounded with hemp plants planted in a single row for the protection of the cane. Reed screens are erected to shelter crops from wind and sand.

Maize and *jowár* always require to be watched during the day while the grain is ripening, otherwise crowds of birds would collect and spoil the crop. The watchman sits on a high platform called the *manna* which is raised on four stakes some ten or twelve feet

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from the ground: he is armed with a *ghábáni* with which he slings mud pellets, made by himself, at the birds. Near *rakhs* a watch over many crops, particularly sugarcane and maize, has to be maintained at night against pig and jackal. The watchman here walks about all night armed with a spear, and cracking a long whip or making discordant yells. Sometimes owners of adjoining lands club together to pay one or more common watchman, and it is not unusual for them to agree together as to what lands shall be sown with what crops, so as to facilitate arrangements for sharing the expense of such watchman as may be found necessary, but as a rule for maize or sugarcane, to which very close attention must be given, each house provides its own watchman. Scare-crows are sometimes used to frighten away birds and are put up in various shapes.

Except cotton, pepper and poppy which are picked by hand, all other crops are reaped with the *dátri* or sickle. It is no easy work, as the stooping or squatting position, combined with an advancing motion, becomes very laborious after a little time and both hands are employed, one holding the sickle and the other the staff to be cut. The work therefore is only fit for able bodied men; women and children, however, can help in tying up the sheaves in the villages where custom permits women to work in the field. Ordinarily, the autumn harvesting is done by the cultivators themselves, assisted by village menials. The rabi crop, however, in tracts extensively irrigated from well or canal is more than the villagers can manage by themselves, if the harvest is to be finished within a reasonable time. Much of the wheat reaping therefore is made over to the hired reapers or *lawas*, who are paid in kind, being allowed to carry off a bundle (*bharri*) of wheat each evening. The *lawa* can cut on the average about two kanáls in a day and the shack weighs about one maund yielding 10 or 12 sérs of grain when threshed, so that this charge comes to about one maund of grain for each acre cut.

When the reaping is done the stuff is collected near the threshing floor, which is a circular piece of ground, pressed down hard and firm, and carefully cleaned; the site of the threshing floor is selected to suit the holding; generally each well has its separate floor and the cultivating shareholders thresh in turn; a stake is driven into the ground in the centre of the floor; the crop to be threshed is placed around the stake, to which one or more yoke of cattle are fastened by a rope: sometimes three or four bullocks or buffaloes are driven in a row. To them is yoked a rectangular handle made of piece of wood tied together which is covered with straw and weighted with clods of earth or other heavy substance that comes in handy. The cattle are muzzled as a rule; each row requires a driver, and another man is needed to put back the straw which gets out of the track of the cattle. The handle is called a *phála*. It is always used for threshing wheat or wheat and gram mixed. Other crops are often threshed without the *phála*, the trampling of the oxen being sufficient to separate the grain from sheath. Maize and *jowár* heads are usually beaten out with sticks, the maize cobs having been first picked out of the sheath by hand. Rice is generally beaten against the edge of a circular hole in the ground. *Moth* and some few other grains are beaten out with a pitchfork.

When the grain has been separated and the straw thoroughly broken, the stuff is tossed up into the air with a pitchfork and then further cleaning is done by shaking the grain and chaff still left mixed in a winnowing basket (*chajji*) held up aloft in a man's hands above his head to catch the breeze. In the month of May when the spring crops are being harvested there is generally a hot wind blowing at some part of the day which helps the process, and the hotter and fiercer the wind the sooner the harvesting is over.

The following statement shows for each month the different stages of field work connected with the various principal crops, and the kinds of weather which are desirable or the reverse. Each native month occupies approximately the latter half of the English one first mentioned and the first half of the second.

Agricultural calendar.
 Cheyt (March—April). Sugarcane, cotton, tobacco, melons and onions are sown. Rapeseed and some of the grain are reaped. Ploughings should be done for kharif sowings. The less rain this month the better, provided there has been moderate rain in the earlier spring months. Atmospheric disturbances are frequent, and the people live in dread of hailstorms which, if they come, destroy any crops they pass over.

Baisákh (April—May). Melons, cotton and vegetable sowings continue. Early autumn fodder crops are also sown, all crops recently sown are watered. Rabi reappings generally completed, except wheat in canal-irrigated tracts. Autumn ploughings still in progress. Sudden showers occasionally come, but it is best to have no rain, otherwise the crops lying out in the field may suffer.

Jeth (May—June). Rabi harvesting completed. Autumn ploughings and sowings continue on irrigated land. Cane, cotton, tobacco and vegetables are weeded and watered. Tobacco, vegetables and melons begin to be gathered; moderate rain is necessary for the unirrigated cotton, and is beneficial to other crops that have been sown, but if too early in the month, is apt to injure the cut crops. A strong hot sun and wind are desirable.

Hár (June—July). Ploughings for kharif in progress on irrigated soils and on unirrigated land if any rain falls. Rice planted out. The late spring crops are gathered. Maize sowings commence. Waterings in progress on cane, cotton and early fodder crops. These last may now be cut as required. Fine weather is desirable in the beginning of the month, but the summer rains should break before the end, otherwise the heat becomes intolerable and kharif ploughings and sowings on unirrigated land are in danger of being postponed too late; also grass is very necessary by this time to supplement the existing fodder stores. Canals should all be in good working order and the Deg stream should begin to fill.

Sáwan (July—August). Maize sowings completed. Late fodder crops sown on irrigated land. Weeding and watering done in sugarcane, chillies, cotton and maize. Other operations on unirrigated land depend on the rainfall. Kharif *báráni* sowings should be completed by the end of the month and rabi ploughings should be in progress. Rain is required at intervals. Much strong sunshine is injurious. Wind should be moderate, and from the east. Canals and Deg stream should all be running.

Bhádrón (August—September). Waterings done on all irrigated autumn crops. Ploughings in progress as far as possible for all rabi crops. Some weeding should be done on maize, chillies, sugarcane and vegetables. Gram and rape sowings commence. Rainfall occasionally is necessary, otherwise the unirrigated crops begin to dry up; the well cattle fail under the pressure put on them to irrigate the whole area sown. Also in the absence of rain the heat becomes excessive; the season becomes unhealthy; and the cultivators begin to go down with fever.

Assu (September—October). Other unirrigated rabi crops are sown and all early rabi fodders at wells. Ploughings continue for irrigated Rabi sowings. Kharif unirrigated crops are partly harvested. Cattle disease is usually prevalent and fever is general. Slight rain is beneficial early in the month, but injurious later.

Katak (October—November). Kharif harvesting continues. All maize and most of the rice are cut and threshed. Cotton picking commences. Irrigated wheat ploughings and sowings are carried on busily, and rabi fodder crops are sown. Sunshine and moderate wind are required. Rain is injurious as it beats down the young rabi crops as they emerge from the ground; and probably the Deg stream. The season becomes healthy and sickness generally ceases.

Magha (November—December). Wheat sowings continue in canal-irrigated land. Rice reaping and threshing is completed. Cotton and chillies picking goes on. Watering is done for rabi fodder crops. The weather should be the same as in the previous month. Fodder supplies begin to run short.

Poh (December—January). Wheat sowings on canal-irrigated land must be completed in the first half of the month. Barley sowing may continue a little later. Sugarcane is cut and ploughings for the next cane crop are begun. Well irrigation goes on busily for all crops. Wheat straw and other dry fodder has probably run out, but the early rabi fodder crops are probably ready for cutting as required. People begin to look anxiously for the winter rains to bring on the young wheat and fodder crops and save the well cattle. Rain should certainly fall before the end of the month.

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Mágh (January—February). Sugarcane is cut and early fodder crops. Well irrigation is carried on day and night. Ploughings begin for early rabi crops. Dry fodder is difficult to procure. Occasional rain is desirable, followed by bright sunshine to avert rust. Moderate wind generally blows and the cattle suffer greatly from cold. Unless there has been rain the night frosts injure the crops, especially gram.

Phagan (February—March). Ploughings done for cane, cotton and tobacco. Some cane, tobacco and vegetables are sown. Irrigation absolutely necessary for all canal and well crops. Moderate rain desirable so that the grain may swell. Bright sunshine also is necessary. Late frosts and strong wind in day-time very hurtful.

Principal staples.

Table No. XX shows the areas under the principal agricultural staples. The remaining areas under crops in 1892-93 were distributed in the manner shown below :—

Crop.	Area.	Crop.	Area.
	Acres.		Acres.
Massar	941	Spices	96
Peas	3,339	Mehdi (henna)	384
China and kangni	6,684	Fodder	27,890
Linseed	855	Swánk, maddal, &c.	8,020
Rape	20,439	Múng	38,491
Táramira and Halia	2,939	Másh	3,900
Fruits	1,082	Rawán	1,128
Carrots and turnips	7,412	Hemp	919
Melons	6,016	Sanknkra	98
Til	17,476	Chillies	132

A more comprehensive summary of agricultural results is given in Appendix A which is based on a careful compilation of the agricultural statistics for the five years 1888-89—1892-93. From this it appears that in the quinquennial average of every 100 acres of cultivation 5 remained fallow and 95 were sown; of every 100 acres sown 7 failed and 93 came to maturity; of every 100 acres so harvested 63 were irrigated, 37 unirrigated; 39 were grown in the kharif (18 irrigated, 21 unirrigated); 61 in the rabi (45 irrigated, 16 unirrigated). The proportion of the leading staples to the total area harvested is shown below in the form of percentages :—

Kharif...	Rice	3
	Cane	2.5
	Cotton	4
	Maize	3
	Jowár	11.
	Múng	3
	Moth	5.5
	Miscellaneous	7
Total		39

Rabi	...	}	Wheat	35	Chapter IV, A. Agriculture, Ar- boriculture and Live-stock. Principal staples.
			Barley	9	
			Gram	8.5	
			Oilseeds	4	
			Miscellaneous	4.5	
Total								61		

The following is an account of the principal staples of the district:—

I.—*Kharif crops.*
Rice.

Rice is chiefly grown in the Deg villages on the south-east of Gujranwala tahsil, the Aik villages of Wazirabad, in the marshy lands along the line of drainage channels, and above all on the sour clay lands of Wazirabad and Hafizabad irrigated by the Chenab Canal. Its cultivation is therefore extending rapidly with the increased facilities for canal irrigation, and now averages over 25,000 acres. It is almost invariably an irrigated crop, and requires a stiff clay soil and abundance of water. The superior varieties, known as *mushkin* or scented, *begami* and *rattua*, are little grown, except along the Deg, where the rice is famous for its quality owing, probably, to the rich deposits left by Deg floods, and fetches a higher price in the market. The coarse white rices, known as *jhona*, *bagar* and *dhán*, are most common. They have a large hard grain, difficult to cook and do not expand in the boiling. The methods of cultivation except in Deg villages are very rough but are gradually improving. The seed is sown close to wells or canal cuts in beds covered with a thick coat of manure early in June. The young plants are transplanted in July when about 9 inches high, the land having first received four or five ploughings, two clod-crushings, and as much manure per acre as is available. The transplanting is a laborious and delicate process and costs about Rs. 2 per acre. Transplanting from seed beds (*paniri*) is however by no means general, though it is now being adopted by all cultivators who wish to ensure a good crop, and can spare the time and labour. In canal-irrigated villages where as is often the case, a large area of common land distant from the village has been put under rice, such niceties of cultivation are disregarded. The seeds are sown broadcast and ploughed into the soil, the land receives no manure, only a few ploughings, and weeding is rare. The crop is at all stages most sensitive to drought and should be always 3 to 6 inches deep in water, the top of the plant, however, standing clear. A week's drought in September or the beginning of October will ruin the labour of months, and hot winds when the ear is forming will reduce the yield by one-half. Hence the outturn varies enormously. In Deg villages and on the best canal lands it is often as much as 32 mans per acre. The average may be taken as 20 mans.

The rice straw (*parali*) is used chiefly for litter, but if pasture is scarce it is often given as fodder to cattle. It is,

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Sugarcane.

however, wanting in nutritive qualities and cattle never thrive on it,

The most valuable crop for its acreage, which averages about 18,000 acres, is sugarcane. It is grown to a slight extent on the river lands of Wazírabad, but chiefly on the wells of the Wazírabad and Gujránwála parganás, and to a lesser extent in the Chenáb and Bángar circles of Háfizabad. In fact it may be said that every well in the district grows its plot of cane (varying from 1 to 3 acres and averaging $1\frac{1}{2}$ acres per well) except in the Adjoining Bár and Bár circles. The cultivation, however, has very largely decreased since Mr. Prinsep's settlement, a fact which is probably to be explained by the increased facilities for import from Siálkot and the Jullundur Doáb, where the cost of production is much less, and also by the greater outlay of capital which the crop requires and the extra demands it makes upon the zamíndár's labour. It is an autumn (kharif) crop. After careful preparation of the land it is sown in Phagan (February—March), the crop ripens in Maghar (November and December), and the juice is expressed by the primitive wooden *belna* in January and February. The three commonest varieties are *dhaul*, *chinkha* and *tareru*. The *chinkha*, also known as *nikka*, and the *tareru* are most commonly grown. The former is an inferior kind and of red colour, the cane is very sweet and is prized for the excellence of the *gur* made from it. The latter is a yellow sort, and the cane is not very strong or straight, the *gur* made from it is inferior, and it is valuable chiefly as a fodder crop for cattle. The *dhaul* or white, a delicate variety, is esteemed the best; but it demands extra labour and attention, for which agriculturists consider that the superior crop does not sufficiently compensate. Besides these varieties, a new kind named Sahárani or Mirati has lately been introduced from the North-Western Provinces. It is chiefly grown in the vicinity of large towns, and is much in demand for retail sale at the bazárs as the stalks, while thick and strong are also soft and juicy. Another species known as *káhu* is also of recent introduction. The *gur* produced from it is inferior in quality, though very sweet. It is generally used in the manufacture of country liquor. The *desi* or Lahori variety known also as *kála ganna* and *pona* is much grown around the towns of Wazírabad, Sohdra and Rámnagar, and retailed in sticks in the bazár.

The people have curious superstitions about sugarcane; the setting the cane is a solemn operation; none of the family are allowed to spin on that day for fear it should become a stringy and worthless crop, and when the crop is ripe the first juice pressed in the new sugar-mill is distributed *gratis* to *fakírs* and servants. The old wooden *belna* though slow, expensive and inefficient was in universal use till a few years ago, but the Behea and other iron mills are now gradually superseding it. They cost only Rs. 25 to 30, require less labour and

express more *gur* than the old and cumbrous *belna*. The only objections to them are that they so thoroughly crush the canes as to render the *pachhi* or refuse useless for making well ropes, and the oil used in lubricating them is apt to find its way into the juice and injure the quality of the *gur*. The latter difficulty can however be overcome by using vegetable oils. The outturn is generally from 14 to 24 maunds per acre.

Cotton (*kapás*) is also a kharif crop. The average area for the five years ending 1892-93 was 30,000 acres, but with the extension of canal irrigation the area in the last two harvests, Kharif 1893 and Kharif 1894, has risen to over 52,000 acres, and it bids fair to become the staple autumn crop. It is generally an irrigated crop, but in the Bár if spring rains are full and timely large areas of *báráni* cotton are grown. The cultivation had much decreased since the settlement of 1867-68 when it had obtained a fictitious impetus owing to the civil war in America. The four or five years ending 1892-93 had been very unfavourable for it, but the last two harvests have been most successful and its cultivation in the Bár will undoubtedly extend still further with canal irrigation as it is a favourite and paying crop on *nahri* land. The seed after preparation by steeping in water and rubbing with cow-dung is sown in Cheyt or Baisakh (March and April). The cotton is usually gathered during Katak and Maghar (October and November), the women of the cultivator's family being usually employed in this work. The picking is made every seventh or eighth day. The crop often sustains considerable damage from rats. Only the indigenous variety, which yields one-third to one-fourth of a sér of ginned to a sér of unginned cotton is commonly grown. Attempts have been made by the District Board to introduce the foreign or red-flowered species, but without success. The experiments made recently with the Naga Hills variety in the new colonies have however been very successful. The Egyptian cotton does not seem to take kindly to this climate and does not flower till December when all other cotton has already been gleaned. The average outturn may be put at 3½ maunds per acre.

The cultivation of maize has considerably increased of late years, and now averages 22,000 acres. It is now the most important of the Kharif food crops. It is always irrigated except on alluvial lands. It forms the staple food of the agricultural classes during most of the winter, and is therefore rarely sold. The stalks might be made into a valuable source of fodder for the cattle in the winter months, but instead of being carefully stored are flung aside when the grain has been removed and left to rot in the wind and rain. The crop requires careful cultivation, five or six ploughings before sowing, and 50 or 60 mans of manure to the acre. Careful weeding at least twice is necessary. The crop near the river suffers much from the ravages of pig, and in the Bár circle, where the soil is well suited for it,

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it can hardly be grown at all as jackals, wild cats and other jungle animals display an extraordinary fondness for it. The outturn is 12 to 14 mans per acre.

Jowár is the largest of the kharif crops in area averaging 75,000 acres ; about one-fifth of the crop is irrigated, and this only when grown for fodder. In Charkhari villages it is chiefly used for fodder purposes and is sown very close, the crop being seldom allowed to come to maturity but being cut while still green and before the ear is fully formed. In Bángár and Bár villages *jowár* is sown for food, as well as for fodder. The fertile loam of the Bár is peculiarly suited for it, the outturn is extremely variable ; in a good year it will conceal an elephant, while in a dry year it will not shelter a hare. After the ear has been plucked, the stalks are carefully preserved for the cattle, and a good *jowár* crop is therefore a great boon to the zamindár as it enables him to save his cane and wheat from requisitions for fodder.

Moth and múng.

The kharif pulses *moth* and *múng* are usually sown together or combined with *jowár* and *til* which give them shade from the sun and shelter from sand storms. They cover between them about 60,000 acres, and may be regarded entirely as an unirrigated crop. They are sown chiefly on the lighter loams (*maira* and *tibba*) found all over the district. *Múng* alone does well in a stiffer soil. These crops are largely cultivated as an article of winter food by the village menials. They require little preliminary preparation of the soil and do best with moderate and well distributed rain. A heavy fall washes them out or brings up weeds which choke them up. The straw (*missa bhusa*) is very valuable as fodder.

II—Rabi crops.
Wheat.

Wheat is the staple crop of the district, 35 per cent. of the cultivated area being occupied with it. About 90 per cent. of the crop is irrigated and most of the unirrigated crop is grown on *sailába* or inundated land. It is grown on *bárání* land only in very favourable years, though mixed with gram it is a favourite *bárání* crop. There are several varieties of wheat grown. The best is a remarkably fine white kind, known as *wadánik* or *dágar*. The yield both of grain and straw is at least 25 per cent. greater than that of the other varieties. It is chiefly grown in the Charkhari circles close to the wells in manured land, the seed being carefully selected from the best ears of the previous crop, and is sown early. The other chief kinds are *berrera* or mixed wheat, a degenerate form of *wadánik*. *Nikki* or *gujarkhání*, an inferior variety less nutritious than either of the above but ripening early and requiring less careful cultivation and fewer waterings, and lastly *goni* or beardless wheat, in some respects like *nikki*, but with a heavier ear and better yield, while the flour though not so nutritious is white, pure and digestible. On well lands the wheat, at least in fields near the well is usually manured, the distant fields receiving a

top dressing or having cattle folded on them. It is rarely weeded and the rising crop is sometimes choked by such weeds as *bughát naunak*, *jana*, &c. The land should receive five or six ploughings before sowing, and unless aided by rain the crop requires five or six waterings. Wheat is most commonly rotated with maize which takes little out of the soil. The yield may be estimated at 10 to 16 mans per acre on irrigated land, 6 to 8 mans on *sailába* and *báráni*. The outturn of straw (*bhúsa*) is nearly the same. It is stored for fodder in pits (*dhar*) carefully plastered with mud and is served out to the cattle mixed with green fodder or chopped turnips or the stalks of *jowár*, maize or cane.

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Wheat.

Barley as a rabi crop ranks next after wheat in importance, the average area being over 60,000 acres, of which two-thirds is generally irrigated. It does not require such careful cultivation as wheat, gets fewer waterings, is rarely manured, ripens earlier, and does fairly well on the inferior soils not suited for wheat. It is thus a favourite crop of the poorer cultivator. One great advantage is that it can be sown up to 15th January, while wheat must be put in by 10th December, and thus if the winter rains set in about Christmas a good deal of fallow land is hastily ploughed up and the barley is sown. The yield is rather less than that of wheat, though with similar advantages that of barley would be greater. There are two varieties, the *paighambari* or *kabuli*, an imported species which is beardless like *goni* wheat, and the *desi* or indigenous kind which is much more commonly grown. The grain is only consumed by the poorer classes who cannot afford wheat. It is largely used for feeding horses, and the *bhúsa* is much superior to that of wheat for fodder.

Barley.

Gram is an important crop in this district, covering an average area of about 60,000 acres. It is very seldom irrigated, and is sown generally on good clean clay or loam soils, any traces of *kallar* being fatal to it. It is grown with most success in the *Bár* where the soil is cool and undeteriorated by continued cropping. The crop is particularly suitable for the *Háfizabad* and *Khángah Dográn* tahsils with their scanty rainfall and large unirrigated area. It is usually sown in furrows with the drill, and wheat or barley or oilseeds is often mixed with it. If winter rains are favourable both crops mature, if they fail the gram is so hardy that it generally holds its own, even if the other crop wither away. The yield may be estimated at 8 to 12 mans per acre. The crop is liable to injury from thunderstorms which blight it, or from heavy rain, and these are especially to be dreaded when the pods are filling out. Gram is eaten by the rural population all the year round either dry and whole or parched (*chaubina*), but chiefly in the form of *dál* at the evening meal.

Gram.

The rabi oilseeds include different varieties of linseed, rape and mustard seeds known as *alsi*, *táramíra*, *tripalkhi*, *toria*, *saron*,

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the products of which are so frequently confounded. They are both irrigated and unirrigated; most of the irrigated crop, *kali sarson* or turnips, is cut while green as food for cattle or men, while the unirrigated known as *tripakki*, *malwani* and *taramira* are allowed to ripen for the sake of the seed which is made into different kinds of oil, colya oil, mustard oil, &c., and used for cooking or burning.

Of the kharif oilseeds, *til* (sesamum) and *sarskaf* (mustard), the former is generally an unirrigated, the latter an irrigated, crop.

The area under oilseeds of all classes comes to about 40,000 acres, and the high prices that have prevailed of late years, owing to the steady demand for export, have given an impetus to the cultivation of these crops. They are grown with most success in the Bār villages around Chuharkāna and Jhabbar where they thrive wonderfully in the clean loam soil. Part of the crop is pressed locally, the oil being used largely as an article of food and medicine, and the refuse (oil-cake) is a valuable article of food for milch cattle. For lighting purposes the vegetable oil has been driven out of the field by the imported mineral oils, and the kerosine tin is now one of the evidences of civilisation to be met with in the most remote villages.

Mehndi.

The culture of *mehndi* is not general, but it deserves some notice. It is an evergreen shrub, and from its leaves the henna dye used so generally at Hindu marriages is extracted. Few crops are more valuable, as when it has once taken root it will go on yielding two crops of leaves in the year for as much as 30 or 40 years. It needs however frequent manuring and constant irrigation. Its culture though most remunerative is not extending owing to the prevalent superstition that ill luck attaches to it. Any one growing it will certainly be childless and ever goes in imminent danger of sudden death.

Tobacco.

Tobacco is grown on the highly enriched or manured lands common round all villages and close to the wells. It is sown in a sunny, well protected spot in Katak (October); the seedlings are transplanted in Maghār-Phagan (January and February) and ripen in Jet or Har (May or June). The land cannot be too well manured, and constant irrigation and hand hoeing are essential. The return from tobacco is so large that the trouble necessary for its production is amply compensated. The sandy soil round Kassise in the Hāfizabad tahsil yields a crop famous for its flavour. Nearly all the leaf is consumed locally. The local production is not sufficient for the demand.

Opium.

The poppy is very little grown in this district. The area in recent years does not average more than 100 acres, and as it is usually grown in Sikh villages for the private consumption of the grower, and such consumption is now a penal offence, it has been suggested, in order to avoid the friction and odium certain

to result if inquisitorial powers are freely exercised, to prohibit the growth of the crop in this district altogether.

The crops grown primarily as fodder are *charri*, *senji* and *maina* (clover), turnips (*shalgham*), but many other crops such as *jowár*, maize, cane, *moth*, *múng* in the kharif, wheat, barley, *china*, *kangni* in the rabi are freely laid under contribution for fodder if the supply of pasture or of straw (*bhúsa*) runs short. The extent to which resort is had to these crops depend first on the extent of pasture land available, and also varies enormously from year to year according to the character of the season. In a season of drought like Rabi 1891-92, fully one-third of the green wheat, at least one-half of the sugarcane, and nearly all the *jowár*, *moth* and *múng* were consumed as fodder, while in the following year grass, *bhusa* and the ordinary fodder crops were found to be abundant and sufficient, and it was hardly necessary to touch the other crops at all for fodder purposes. The proportion of crops grown purely for fodder, and of grain crops, which are partly diverted to fodder purposes, is greatest in Wazirabad, where there is a great scarcity of good pasture. It is also considerable in the Charkhari and Bángar circles of Gujranwála. In the above tracts the area under fodder crops is from 10 to 12 per cent. of the whole. In the Adjoining Bár of Gujranwála, and in the Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn tahsils pasture land is abundant, and the area under fodder crops is only 6 to 8 per cent. of the whole cultivation. *Charri* alone or mixed with *bhúsa* is the favourite fodder in the hot weather months. In the autumn if grass is scarce, it is supplemented by the stalks of *jowár* or maize and the *bhúsa* of *moth* and *múng*. Indeed, if these crops are poor they are often grazed by the cattle while still standing. In the early winter months, if pasture is scarce and the *jowár* crop has been poor, the sugarcane is laid under contribution. The canes are chopped up like *jowár* stalks and mixed with *bhúsa*. After Christmas the rabi fodder crops, turnips, carrots, come into use and rape (*sarson*) and *táramira* are often cut for fodder. These are rarely given alone, being usually mixed with *bhúsa* or dried *jowár* and maize stalks. The clover crops *senji* and *maina* grown close to wells in the stubble of maize, cotton, &c., also come into use about this time. In February or March, green wheat or barley is freely resorted to, as last year's straw has by this time often run out. In a district so largely dependent on wells the number of cattle that have to be maintained for working the wells and for ploughing is enormous, and their keep is one of the heaviest charges on the zamíndár. The well and plough cattle over all the district except the Bár where the pasture keeps them going for four or five months, have to be stall-fed all the year round, and the above remarks will shew what a heavy tax their maintenance is on the profits of agriculture.

Besides drought and floods, the two great enemies to the crops are weeds and parasites. For cane, cotton, and maize, careful weeding (*godí*) is indispensable, and if, as often happens,

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heavy monsoon rains retard or prevent this work, there is a great falling off in the yield. Wheat is not often weeded, barley never, and both these crops, especially in alluvial and sandy soil, suffer much from weeds such as *bughât*, *naunak jana*. It is a curious fact that fields sown with the aid of natural moisture run much more to weeds than if sown with well or canal irrigation. The cause of blights and crop diseases is little understood by the people, but their results are often only too well marked. A parasite named *tela*, which attacks most crops, except wheat, is most commonly heard of. It flourishes in a drought, and, attacking the plant near the top, it works downwards and checks the growth.

Sundi is a small caterpillar which attacks maize, tobacco and gram. *Toka* is a similar parasite which attacks cane and maize. Rust (*kungi*) is the most dangerous enemy of wheat. It is brought on by raw, cloudy weather in January or February, following on heavy winter rains, and is most common in damp, water-logged soils. It turns the blades yellow, working down from the top, stunts growth and prevents the ear from forming. A good shower of rain, followed by bright warm weather, is the most effectual remedy for it.

Solcha is the general name given to the hot dry wind that blows often at ripening time in October and March, prevents the ear from swelling out, and makes the ear small, dry and hard.

White ants (*sewank*) do much damage to crops in sandy soils in seasons of drought, but the most dangerous plague of all are locusts, whose periodic invasions lay waste the tract they pass through like the march of a hostile army. In the hot weather of 1891, the sprouting autumn crops over the whole district were devoured, the trees stripped bare of leaf and bark, and all vegetation practically annihilated by them.

Average yield:
Production and consumption of food
grains.

Table No. XXI shows the estimated average yield in pounds per acre of each of the principal staples as shown in the Administration Report of 1881-82. The average consumption

Grain.	Agricultur- ists.	Non-agri- culturists.	Total.
Wheat	600,824	774,096	1,374,920
Inferior grains ...	910,339	1,172,873	2,083,212
Pulses	308,515	398,777	708,292
Total	1,820,678	2,345,746	4,166,424

of food per head has already been noticed at page 28. The total consumption of food grains by the population of the district as estimated in 1878, for the purposes of the

Famine Report, is shown in maunds in the margin. The figures are based upon an estimated population of 550,576 souls. On the other hand, the average consumption per head is believed to have been over-estimated. A rough estimate of the total production, exports and imports, of foodgrains was also framed at the same time; and it was stated (page 152, Famine Report)

that the local produce was insufficient for the needs of the population; and that an annual import of some 634,000 maunds was required, consisting principally of wheat, gram, *jowár*, rice and barley, brought from neighbouring districts, and especially from Ferozepore, and in the case of barley from Gurdáspur. Since the above estimate was framed, the production of food grains has increased more rapidly than population, and the figures now require to be recast. Taking the average area of crops for the five years ending 1892-93 as shown in Appendix A, and applying to the leading food crops the following rates of yield per acre which are decidedly moderate—

Wheat, gram and maize	...	10	mans	per	acre
Barley	8	"	"	"
Rice	20	"	"	"
Jowár, bájra, moth and múng	4	"	"	"	"

the total yield of these food grains comes to about 4,600,000 mans. The population in 1891 was 690,169. The average annual consumption allowed for in the Famine Report was 8 mans 4 sérs per head, and at this rate the total consumption per annum would be 5,600,000 mans, leaving a deficit of 1,000,000 mans to be made good by import. In fact, however, import of food grains is rare except in seasons of scarcity; local production not only suffices for local consumption but leaves a considerable and growing margin for export to the seaboard, and to the northern districts. The popular estimate which allows 8 mans for the annual consumption of an adult male, 6 mans for an adult woman, and 4 mans for children, is more likely to be correct than the results arrived at by the *a priori* reasoning of the Famine Commission. This would give an average consumption of 6 mans per head and a total consumption for the present population of 4,140,000 mans, leaving a margin of 460,000 mans for export, and this is probably rather below than above the mark.

The above estimate takes no account of the produce of about 140,000 acres sown with miscellaneous non-food crops, such as sugarcane, cotton, &c., which are more valuable than food crops when turned into money, and from which the agricultural classes pay the land revenue and other cash liabilities.

Table No. XVII shows the whole area of waste land which is under the management of the Forest Department. This amounts to only 15,250 acres and is nearly 130,000 acres less than it was at the revised settlement of 1867-68, owing to the fact that the great block of Government waste on the south-west of the district, which was formerly under the Forest Department, in the Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn tahsils, has now been allotted for colonization purposes. Government, however, has retained the proprietary rights in all of this, except about 10,000 acres sold by auction sale.

The Forest rakhs are now isolated blocks, of which there are 2 in the Gujranwála tahsíl, 2 in Wazírabad, and 17 in

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Forests.

Háfizabad and Klángah Dográn. Most of these were formerly under District management, but were made over to the Forest Department in 1893 when the colonisation operations began. They form a small but useful fuel and fodder reserve, and should be carefully maintained for that purpose, now that village waste is so rapidly being brought under the plough. They are leased out annually for grazing, and, as a rule, are taken up by the adjoining villages, the rates obtained averaging 7 or 8 annas per acre. A list of the rakhs, showing area and average income of last five years and of the present year, is given below:—

Tahsil.	Name of rakh.	Area in acres.	Average income 1889-90 to 1893-94.	Income in 1894-95.
			Rs.	Rs.
Gujránwála	Chichra	954	1,823	1,850
	Sahníánwála	221	37	45
Wazírabad	Báoli Akálgarh	616	132	130
	Bela Santpura... ..	485	389	325
	Wámke	104	63	60
	Bela Kádirpur... ..	50	123	105
	Kíla Morád Bakhsh	200	104	102
	Jíndoke... ..	463	312	320
Háfizabad	Thatta Mukhtár	427	244	275
	Píndi Jalol	115	41	50
	Chak Khiáli	303	222	225
	Kíla Rám Rang	285	87	100
	Jangla	134	37	40
	Píndi Bhattián	206	168	225
	Chak Wáhi	303	253	240
	Lagar (Part)	1,834	42	42
	Makki Unchi	373	139	155
	Khángah Dográn	Makki Khára	4,208	2,900
Hammoki		2,552		
Jhariána		330	77	90
Jhinda Jhariána		998	469	475
	Total	15,250	7,860	7,956

Table No. XXII shows the live-stock in the district at different periods. The figures for 1893-94 show an enormous increase under all heads except camels. The increase is no doubt largely due to better enumeration and to the fact that, as fodder was plentiful, all the cattle were in the district at the time. Though there is a popular opinion to the contrary, there is no doubt, however, that the extension of cultivation not only requires but enables a larger number of cattle to be maintained. The only part of the district where cattle are probably decreasing is in the Bár, where the people, especially the nomad tribes, formerly looked entirely to their flocks and herds for subsistence, but now, since they have taken to agriculture, have been getting rid of their surplus stocks. The number fluctuates enormously with the seasons. A prolonged drought cuts off the old and feeble as well as the young and weak cattle, and in the year 1891-92 it is computed that about one-fifth of the cattle in the district died of starvation. The gaps have, however, been more than filled up in the two prosperous years that followed.

There is no Government ram ; there are, however, 14 Hissár bulls, of which 2 are in the Gujránwála tahsíl, 3 in Wazírabad, 3 in Háfizabad, 6 in Khángah Dográn. The produce is much valued for agricultural purposes.

A cattle fair is held in April each year at Eminabad in connection with the local Baisákhi fair, which lasts for three days, and is very largely attended. In 1894 7,000 head of cattle were exhibited, 52 selected for prizes and 4,690

	Rs.	
13 Milch cows	110	sold for over Rs. 70,000. Rs. 363 as
20 Bullocks	126	shown in the margin were given by
14 She buffaloes	110	way of prizes. A fee of 3 pies per
2 Hebuffaloes	8	rupee was realised on the sale of cattle,
3 Cows (for breeding	9	and this brought in an income of about
purposes)		Rs. 1,100.

In Wazírabad and Gujránwála, the people rarely breed their own plough and well cattle. They purchase them at the local fairs, or at the Baisákhi and Dewáli fairs at Amritsar, or from itinerant dealers from Jhelum, Gujrát and Pesháwar, on the north side, and from Hissár and Montgomery, on the south. The price is generally paid half and half at the autumn and spring harvests ; credit (*udhár*) being given if the purchaser is poor, but a small sum is generally paid down as earnest money (*sái*). The bullocks of the north Punjab, especially of the Salt Range, are the best for draught purposes. In Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn, where there is plenty of available land, the people breed their own cattle largely, and the cows of the Bár are famous for their milching properties.

In 1893 a horse show was started, tentatively, at the same fair and promises to become very popular. At the fair of 1894,

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500 horses and mares of all kinds were exhibited; of these 147 competed for prizes, which were awarded to 70, the total value amounting to Rs. 418. No fee of any sort was levied on the entry or sale of the horses.

Live-stock.

In 1892 a cattle fair was started at Shahkot, under the management of the Colonisation Officer, for the benefit of the colonists, and promises to become a very successful institution as it brings together the nomads, who have surplus cattle to dispose of, and the new colonists, who are anxious to buy. In 1893 the District Boards of Jhang and Gujránwála jointly defrayed the expenses of the fair, but in 1894 the expenses were all borne by the latter. A fee of 3 pies in the rupee was levied on the price of each animal sold. The whole of the money raised, which was about Rs. 439 along

	Rs.
151 Camels for	6,610
74 Horses „	3,289
4 Mules „	318
5 Donkeys, „	54
588 Bullocks and cows for	14,240
119 Buffaloes for	3,580
Total 941 head	28,071

with the District Board contribution of Rs. 300, was spent on the arrangements of the fair and on prizes for sports and on *khillats*. The number of animals sold in 1894 is shown in the margin.

In many parts of the district, and especially in the Gujránwála and Wazirabad tahsils, where the area available for pasture is small, great difficulty is experienced in the matter of fodder for the cattle. The subject has been already alluded to in connection with fodder crops. In severe drought, the cattle are taken to the *belás* along the Chenáb and Rávi, and sometimes as far away as Umballa and even Saháranpur to pasture, but such extreme measures are no longer necessary as fodder crops can now be raised in abundance on the canal. The branches and bark of the *kikar*, the *karíl*, *ber* or *malla* are commonly used as fodder in very dry seasons.

Horse-breeding.

The Government system of horse-breeding has been in operation since 1882. The number of branded mares for horse-breeding is now 215. There are three horse stallions in the district, *viz.*, an Arab stallion at Gujránwála, a Norfolk trotter at Wazirabad, and an English thorough-bred at Háfizabad.

There are also three donkey stallions, two of Italian and the third of Persian breed at Gujránwála, Háfizabad and Wazirabad. The donkey stallions are very popular among the zamíndárs. In 1893-94, 102 branded mares were served by horse stallions, and 251 mares by donkey stallions.

The District Board has recently purchased three Arab pony stallions for small mares. Hitherto, the improvement in the breed of horses has not been very marked. The leading men

of the district to whom one might look to take the initiation are nearly all Sikh Sardárs, and the Sikh has neither the knowledge of or taste for horses which his Musalmán neighbour shows in the adjoining districts of Shahpur, Jhang and Gujráat. A Sardár of blue blood, with broad acres and large *jágirs*, is not ashamed to be seen bestriding a pony which a regimental grass-cutter would despise. A better spirit is, however, beginning to show itself, and, if the horse fair at Eminabad is carefully nursed for a few years to come, it will probably help considerably in improving the quality. There are four *salutries* employed by the District Board, one for each tahsil; they are all qualified men, and receive Rs. 15 per month, plus Rs. 7-8-0 travelling allowance. A reward of Re. 1 is granted as an incentive for each successful gelding operation.

The District Board has sanctioned three Veterinary scholarships of Rs. 6 each at the Veterinary College, Lahore. Two of them are now vacant, and one is held by a student selected by the Gujránwála Local Board.

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Horse-breeding.

SECTION B.—OCCUPATIONS, INDUSTRIES AND COMMERCE.

Table No. XXIII shows the principal occupations followed by males of over 15 years of age as returned at the census of 1881. But the figures are perhaps the least satisfactory of all the census statistics, for reasons explained in the Census Report of 1881, and they must be taken subject to limitations which are given in some detail in Part II, Chapter VIII of the same Report. There are no corresponding figures as yet available for the census returns of 1891, but there is no reason to suppose that the figures would show any great change in the present distribution among the different classes. More detailed figures for the occupations of the people, without distinguishing males of over 15 years of age, are given in Table No. XVII, Part 13, of the Census Report for 1891.

Table No. XXIV gives statistics of the manufactures of the district as they stood in 1881-82. The small town of Nizámabad, near Wazírabad, is still famous for its workers in iron. Under native rule, they were chiefly engaged in the manufacture of weapons; their trade greatly declined for many years after annexation, but has now revived again, and there is now a considerable manufacture of swords which are supplied to the police and the troops in Native States.

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The following note on some of the special industries of the district is by Mr. Lockwood Kipling, late Principal of the Lahore School of Art.

Principal industries and manufactures.

Nizámabad in this district is known for its cutlery. The tourist is frequently offered at hotels and *dák* bungalows many-bladed pocket knives bristling with hooks, screw-drivers, and other contrivances more calculated to display the ingenuity of the maker than to serve the convenience of the purchaser. These are generally accompanied by tobacco-cutters, a somewhat elaborate and automatic machine for cutting cake tobacco, neatly mounted on polished *shisham* wood, wonderfully well finished for native work, costing only Rs. 5. These are specimens of a trade in cutlery which seems to have been established for a long time at Wazirabad and Nizámabad, where also guns, pistols, swords, razors, spears, horse-bits, bullet-moulds and other steel articles are made—it would perhaps be better to say, can be made—for there is not a regular production. The finish and polish of the articles, though not perfect, is better than the quality of the steel, which, although tough, is deficient in hardness, and is often scarcely to be distinguished from good iron. The edge of a Nizámabad pen-knife is soon blunted, and, as a “Rodger’s” knife can be had in any *bazar* for eight or sometimes six annas, it may be imagined that the local production is but small. The forging of these articles is often admirable. This is a matter quite apart from the quality of the metal and the subsequent finish, and it is usually the crucial difficulty of the native smith, who seems in forging habitually to burn his iron, and to leave his welding to the care of Providence. In other parts of the country one result of the orders of the Supreme Government, to the effect that cutlery of native make should be substituted in Government offices for that hitherto imported from England, has been a demonstration of the hopelessness of a competition between Indian and Sheffield cutlers. That the craft survives at all shows, however, that country cutlery finds a place somewhere. A very rude form of pen-knife with immovable blade and turned-up point, in a wooden handle, seems to be the only article of Nizámabad production that finds a large sale. This is to be seen in the shops of all hardware dealers, and most schoolboys are furnished with one.

Brass vessels of sound workmanship are made at Gujránwála, and a large selection was sent to the Punjab Exhibition, 1881. Brass and ivory. These differ in no important respect from those of the rest of the province. Small and pretty toys in ivory are also made at Gujránwála, models of fruits to serve as antimony bottles slightly touched with colour, ivory bangles, pepper castors, walking-cane handles, small boxes, and other fancy articles, all however very small and simply lathe-turned, were sent to the Punjab Exhibition. This does not seem to be a regular trade, but one of the many apparently accidental crafts practised by individuals in out-of-the-way places.

At Wazirabad a triviality of English introduction has found a place; the manufacture of chenille. Many years ago it was fashionable to make silk into strings resembling elongated hairy caterpillars, and it is still used as a trimming. The original massive form is preserved at Wazirabad, and applied to the decoration of a variety of objects, such as glove boxes, slippers, caps, cushions, flower-vases, and the like. The chenille is dyed in the crudest and most brilliant colours, and in the case of boxes it appears to be glued down to a wooden or pasteboard foundation in a sort of mosaic. A beer glass in chenille is often offered as a *chef d'œuvre*, and similarly incongruous articles are to be seen in the houses of Eurasians, who have a passion for a violent colour which is not easily accounted for. The silk is imported from Amritsar, which is the silk centre of the Punjab.

A large selection of articles including cutlery, guns, swords and pistols from Nizámabad, brass work and pottery, glazed and unglazed, from Gujránwála, and *phulkáries* from Háfizabad and Gujránwála were sent to the Punjab Exhibition of 1893. Many of these things showed excellent workmanship, and among the Nizámabad exhibits especially were several very elaborate and highly finished guns, knives, tobacco-cutters and other articles.

But the demand for them was not great as they were highly priced and were generally more ornamental than useful, and the large majority were returned unsold to the great disappointment and pecuniary loss of the artisans, who had been led to expect that most, if not all, of the articles would be disposed of, and their pockets as well as their reputation would greatly benefit thereby.

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There are no statistics available for the general trade of the district, though Table No. XXV gives particulars of the river traffic passing through it. The figures are taken from the Famine Report of 1879. Since that time the improvement in other means of communication has considerably interfered with this traffic.

Course and nature
of trade.

The trade of the district though rapidly growing is not as yet very important. The principal marts are Gujranwála, Eminabad, Kíla Dídar Singh, Wazírabad, Rám-nagar, Akálgarh, Píndi Bhattián, Háfizabad, Sheikhupura, Sohdra, Ránike and Vánike. At these places a brisk traffic is maintained in country produce of all kinds, including country-made cotton cloth, which is woven in considerable quantities at many of the larger villages. The export trade is now growing, the country produce being conveyed by road to the railway stations of Wazírabad, Ghakhar, Gujranwála, Kámoke or Lahore. In good years wheat is largely exported to Ráwalpíndi, Pesháwar, and the seaboard at Karáchi. There is a large and increasing export of gram to Siálkot, Jhelum and Lahore. Of late years a good deal of coarse rice has been sent to the North Punjab districts. The trade in oilseeds is developing very rapidly, but the trade in cotton, the cultivation of which has received a great impetus from the Chenáb Canal, promises to surpass all others, and all through the winter months strings of bullock-carts laden with cotton may be seen slowly wending their way to Gujranwála and Lahore from the remoter parts of Háfizabad or Khángah Dográn.

Very large quantities of sugar (*kand*) are imported into Gujranwála, Wazírabad and Rám-nagar for purposes of retail or re-export to Jhang. Gujranwála also exports vessels of brass and bell-metal and small quantities of jewelry, shawl-edging and scarves. Rám-nagar exports leathern vessels (*kupa*) used for the carriage of *ghi*, grain and oil.

The export of *ghi* from the Bár to Lahore, Siálkot and Amritsar, though diminishing every year owing to the breaking up of pasture, is still very considerable and may be estimated at 2 lakhs a year. Firewood and charcoal are also largely exported to Lahore and Siálkot in country carts. There is also some trade in wool, some of which is made up locally into blankets, *namdas*, &c., but most of it is sold to Shikárpuria traders in Gujranwála for export to Karáchi. There is a trade in skin and hides carried on by Khojás which is naturally brisker in a year of drought. In 1887, a factory for refining

Chapter IV. B. saltpetre which is made from the *shora*, earth found in old mounds and ruins in the Bár, was started by Seths from Rohtak, and about Rs. 20,000 worth is annually sent to Calcutta.

Prices, Weights and Measures, and Communication.

Course and nature of trade.

The great grain and cotton exporting tract will in future be the canal-irrigated lands in Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn. Recently, as the development has begun, there are even now large stocks of grain, chiefly wheat and rice, which, owing to the want of carriage and defective communications, cannot find their way to a market. The opening up of this tract by the Wazirabad-Mooltan Railway, running down the centre of the Doáb, which is just being begun, will enable all this surplus produce to find its way to a suitable market and will give a great stimulus to trade.

The opening of the North-Western Railway and of the branch line to Siálkot has had a depressing effect on the trade of towns like Wazirabad, Rámnagar, &c., which were great centres formerly for river-borne traffic, and the local carrying trade. They have also lost the trade in salt from the Mayo mines, which was largely conducted through commission agents in these towns, but now finds its way by rail direct to the place of import. The timber trade at Wazirabad still survives. The Kashmír State and the Forest Department have large depôts close to the river where the logs are landed, stored and sold to contractors and timber merchants. The timber trade has, however, lost much of its prosperity since steel sleepers superseded *deodár* on the railway, and also for roofing purposes. A good deal of timber is sent down the river in rafts to Jhang, Mooltan and Sukkur. The river-borne traffic is, however, being steadily driven out of the field by the railway. Wheat, sugar and *ghi* are still sent down in country boats, which, after delivering their freight at Mooltan or Sukkur, are generally sold as the process of towing them back would be lengthy and arduous. There are no periodical fairs for the sale or distribution of merchandise. At the large religious fair held annually at Dhaunkal near Wazirabad, ploughs manufactured at Jammu are extensively sold.

SECTION C.—PRICES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND COMMUNICATION.

Prices, wages and mt.-rates.

Table No. XXVI gives the retail bazár prices of commodities for the last 30 years. The wages of labour are shown in Table No. XXVII, and rent-rates in Table No. XXI.

Price of land.

Table No. XXXII gives statistics of the sales and mortgages of land during the last eight years. From these it appears that the average price of land sold during that period

is Rs. 15-14-0 per acre, and of land mortgaged Rs. 13-4-0.

Tahsil.	Sales.	Mortgages.
	Rs.	Rs.
Gujránwála	16	17
Wazirabad	27	26
Háfizabad	7	6

The figures in the margin show the average prices realised by sale or mortgage of land in each of the three tahsils since the revised settlement of 1868. They are taken from the assessment reports. In all

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Prices, Weights
and Measures, and
Communications

Price of land.

the tahsils there has been a notable increase in the value of land of late years. Thus, in the Gujránwála tahsíl, in the period 1878-84 the average selling price of land (cultivated and uncultivated) was Rs. 16 per acre, and the mortgage value Rs. 14; in the period 1884-94, these rose respectively to Rs. 24 and Rs. 17 per acre. In Wazirabad, from 1868-73 the selling and mortgage prices of cultivated land were Rs. 16 and Rs. 21, respectively. In 1884-91 they were Rs. 41 and Rs. 30. There have been large increases in the Háfizabad tahsíl within the period 1887-92 during which canal irrigation was introduced, and in the Bár the price of land rose from Rs. 4 to Rs. 9 per acre. The present value of land there is much higher still, and it is impossible now to purchase even *banjar* land that is likely to be commanded by the canal for less than Rs. 15, and if the land is at all of good quality for less than Rs. 20 or Rs. 25 per acre.

In this tahsíl the usual rates paid for land acquired by Government for the purposes of canal are as follows :—

Cháhi	Rs. 25 to Rs. 35
Bárání	„ 20 „ „ 25
Banjar	„ 12 „ „ 20
Unculturable	„ 5

In Wazirabad the rate paid for *cháhi* land is usually Rs. 35 to Rs. 50 per acre, of *sailába* Rs. 25 to Rs. 35, and of *bárání* Rs. 20 to Rs. 30, while in Gujránwála the rates are *cháhi* Rs. 30 to Rs. 45, *bárání* Rs. 20 to Rs. 30. In 1892 10,000 acres of Government waste commanded by the canal were sold at a rate of over Rs. 40 per acre: This was all in the present Khángah Dográn tahsíl.

The following are the local measures of the district :—

Weights and mea-
sures.

“In Gujránwála *ghumaos*, *kanáls*, and *marlas* are equivalent to acres, half roods and poles, respectively; 22 inches = 1 *háth*; 3 *háths* or 66 inches = 1 *karu*; 3 *karús* long by 3 *karús* broad = 9 *sarsáts* or 1 *marla*; 20 *marlás* = 1 *kanál*; 2 *kanáls* = 1 rood; 4 roods = 1 acre or *ghumao*; 640 acres make 1 mile. Measures and weights for food grains.—4 *jhóás* = 1 *paropi*; 4 *paropís* = 1 *topa*; 2 *topás* = 1 *daropa*; 2 *daropás* = 1 pie; 4 pies = 1 maund; 3 maunds 2 *topas*, or 12½ pies = 1 *pand*; 4 *pands* = 1 *máni*; 5 *tólds* = 1 *chittáck*; 4 *chittácks* = 1 *pao*; 4 *paos* = 1 *sér*; 5 *sérs* = 1 *dhari*; 8 *dharis* or 40 *sérs* = 1 maund. Measure for cloth is called *gaz*. 16 *girráhs* = 1 *gaz* or 36 inches. Measures for wood.—This *gaz* is 3 inches less than the English yard; 4 *pines* = 1 *tassu*; 24 *tassús* = 1 *gaz*.

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Prices, Weights
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Communications.

Weights and mea-
sures.

The *man*, taken as a standard of weight, is the *pakka Láhori man*, weighing 40 *sérs*; taken as a standard of capacity, the *man* contains 16 *topás*, and this is known as the *kacha man*. There are two *topás* called the *Chima* and *Chatha*, after the tribes among which each is in vogue, but the *Chima topa* is in almost universal use, and the district may, therefore, be said to have a fixed standard of capacity. The *topa*, however, weighs from $1\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ *sérs* according to the kind and quality of the grain. The *topa* of wheat weighs $1\frac{1}{2}$ *sérs* and the *kacha man*, therefore, weighs 26 *sérs*. $12\frac{1}{2}$ *kacha mans* are equal to one *máni*, which in the case of wheat is equal to 8 *pakka mans*. In all agricultural calculations, except in some Wazírabad villages bordering on Siálkot, the *pakka máni* is the standard.

Communications.

The figures in the margin show the communications of the district, while Table No. XLVI shows the distances from place to place as authoritatively fixed for the purpose of calculating travelling allowance. Table No. XIX shows the areas taken up by Government for communication in the district.

Communications.	Miles.
Navigable rivers ...	82
Metalled roads ...	56
Railways ...	47
Unmetalled roads ...	1,261

Rivers and ferries.

The Chenáb is navigable for country craft throughout its course within the district, and as far as Aknúr, in the Jammu territory, about 50 miles above Wazírabad. Much timber is floated down from the mountains, and it is sold at Wazírabad. The principal traffic on this river, as stated in the Punjab Famine Report, is shown in Table No. XXV; but, as above stated, it has considerably decreased of late years. The mooring places, and ferries, and the distances between them, are shown

River.	Stations.	Distance in miles.	Number of boats.
Chenáb.	Wazírabad ...	6	...
	Khánke ...	9	5
	Garhi Gola ...	5	6
	Rám Nagar ...	8	12
	Kála ...	8	3
	Kádirabad ...	7	6
	Pheroke ...	8	4
	Mahmúdpur ...	6	3
	Hazára ...	6	4
	Burkan ...	6	2
Chuchak ...	8	5	

in the margin, following the downward course of the Chenáb river. The ferry at Sohdra is in charge of the Siálkot district. There used to be a bridge-of-boats opposite Kádirabad in the Gujrát district, where the old Sal road from Miyáni crossed the river, but this has been done away with since the opening of the Sind-Ságar Railway

and replaced by a ferry. It has recently been proposed to put up a small boat-bridge over the Pálkhu at Wazírabad to replace the wooden pile-bridge washed away by the floods in 1892.

Some years ago, the carrying trade in timber from the Jammu hills, sugar, wheat and *ghi* by water to Mooltan and Sakkar was important, and the boat-building trade at Wazirabad, Rám-nagar, Malahánwála and other places brisk. The boats are cheap, particularly strong and well built; the Chenáb boatmen are reckoned excellent sailors. Boats on their arrival with freight at Mooltan or Sakkar are eagerly bought up, and few, if any, return up the river.

Chapter IV. C.
Prices, Weights
and Measures, and
Communications.
Rivers and ferries.

The North-Western Railway runs through the district, and there are stations at Kámoke, 5 miles from the Lahore boundary, Gujranwála, 12 miles on, Ghakhar, 11 miles, and Wazirabad, 10 miles. From Wazirabad a line branches off to Siálkot and Jammu, running for a distance of 6 miles through the district with a station at Sohdra. The projected line connecting Wazirabad with Mooltan, and running *viâ* Háfizabad through the heart of the Doáb, has already been referred to.

Railway.

The following table shows the principal roads of the district together with the halting places on them and the conveniences for travellers to be found at each :—

Roads, rest-houses,
encamping grounds,
&c.

Names of the principal roads with halting places and the convenience for travellers to be found at each in the Gujranwála District.

Route.	Halting places.	Distance in miles.	REMARKS.
Gujranwála to Nangal Duna Singh leading to Amritsar.	Gujranwála	Unmetalled, dák bungalow, sarái and encamping ground.
	Eminabad ...	9	Bungalow.
	Nangal Duna Singh.	11	Encamping ground.
Grand Trunk Road from Lahore to Pesháwar.	Sádhoke	Sarái and rest-house, also Public Works Department road bungalow.
	Kámoke ...	5	Sarái, with bungalow, and encamping ground.
	Dhillánwáli ...	5	Public Works Department road bungalow.
	Gujranwála ...	7	Dák bungalow, sarái and encamping ground.
	Ghakhar ...	11	Sarái, with rest-house, encamping ground and Public Works Department road bungalow.
	Wazirabad ...	10	Dák bungalow, sarái, encamping ground, Civil rest-house, Forest bungalow and Public Works Department bungalow.

Chapter IV, C. Names of the principal roads with halting places and the convenience for travellers to be found at each in the Gujranwála District—contd.

Prices, Weights and Measures, and Communications.

Roads, rest-houses, encamping grounds, &c.

Route.	Halting places.	Distance in miles.	REMARKS.
Gujranwála to Jalálpur viâ Háfizabad.	Gujranwála	Dák bungalow, sarái and encamping ground.
	Kíla Dídar Singh	10	Bungalow private (but open to European officers).
	Naukhar ...	5	Rest-house.
	Háfizabad ...	15	Sarái, with bungalow, and encamping ground.
	Jalálpur ...	18	Ditto ditto.
Wazírabad to Pindi Bhattián.	Wazírabad	Dák bungalow, sarái, encamping ground, Civil rest-house, Forest bungalow, and Public Works Department bungalow.
	Saroke ...	10	Rest-house (to be demolished).
	Rámnagar ...	12	Bungalow (báradari) and encamping ground.
	Vánike ...	14	Sarái, with bungalow, encamping ground.
	Jalálpur ...	16	Ditto ditto.
	Pindi Bhattián.	13	Ditto ditto.
Gujranwála to Sheikhupura.	Gujranwála	Dák bungalow, encamping ground and sarái.
	Majju Chak ...	17	Rest-house.
	Sheikhupura ...	15	Sarái, with bungalow, and encamping ground.
Wazírabad to Háfizabad.	Wazírabad	Dák bungalow, sarái, encamping ground, Civil rest-house, Forest bungalow, and Public Works Department bungalow.
	Saroke ...	10	Rest-house (to be demolished).
	Akálgarh ...	13	Ditto ditto.
	Háfizabad ...	16	Sarái, with bungalow, and encamping ground.

Names of the principal roads with halting places and the convenience for travellers to be found at each in the Gujranwála District—contd.

Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights and Measures, and Communications.

Roads, rest-houses, encamping grounds, &c.

Route.	Halting places.	Distance in miles.	REMARKS.
Gujranwála to Rám-nagar.	Gujranwála	Dák bungalow, encamping ground, sarái.
	Kaláski ...	12	Sarái, with bungalow.
	Rám-nagar ...	15	Rest-house (bárádari) and encamping ground.
Gujranwála to Vánike viá Akál-garh.	Gujranwála	Dák bungalow, encamping ground, sarái.
	Kaláski ...	12	Sarái, with bungalow.
	Akálgarh	Rest-house.
	Vánike	Sarái, with rest-house, and encamping ground.
Sheikhupura to Pindi Bhattián.	Sheikhupura	Rest-house, sarái, encamping ground.
	Chuharkána ...	12	Ditto ditto.
	Khángah Dog-rán.	12	Old rest-house pulled down and the new one has yet to be constructed, and encamping ground.
	Sukheke ...	10	Canal bungalow, encamping ground.
	Pindi Bhattián.	12	Sarái, with rest-house, and encamping ground.
Kámoke to Rám-nagar.	Kámoke	Sarái, with bungalow, and encamping ground.
	Butála ...	20	Private bungalow.
	Rám-nagar ...	17	Bungalow, encamping ground.

Chapter IV, C.

Names of the principal roads with halting places and the convenience for travellers to be found at each in the Gujranwála District—concl'd.

Prices, Weights and Measures, and Communications.

Roads, rest-houses, encamping grounds, &c.

Route.	Halting places.	Distance in miles.	REMARKS.
Sheikhupura to Vánike or Lahore to Kádírabad.	Sheikhupura	Rest-house, sarái, encamping ground.
	Jhabbar ...	13	Ditto ditto.
	Háfizabad ...	18	Ditto ditto.
	Vánike ...	12	Ditto ditto.
Háfizabad to Pindi Bhattián.	Háfizabad	Rest-house, sarái, encamping ground.
	Matteki	Police bungalow.
Majju Chak to Khángah Dográn.	Majju Chak	Police bungalow.
	Jhabrán ...	14	Rest-house, sarái, encamping ground.
	Khángah Dográn	14	Rest-house has to be built yet.
Naushera to Rám-nagar via Naukhar.	Naushera	Rest-house.
	Naukhar ...	11	Ditto.
	Akálgarh ...	13	Ditto.
	Rám-nagar ...	5	Rest-house, encamping ground.

- | | | |
|-------------------|-----|---------------------|
| 1. Matteki ... | ... | } Police bungalows. |
| 2. Majju Chak ... | ... | |
| 3. Marh ... | ... | |
| 4. Baddoke ... | ... | |
| 5. Manawála ... | ... | |

The district rest-houses and sarái bungalows are provided with crockery and cooking utensils, but it is safer for visitors to take at least the latter with them. New rest-houses have been proposed for Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn. At the latter the need is most urgent, as at present there is absolutely no accommodation. Besides the bungalows shown in the above list there is also a series of canal rest-houses, along the main line and the various branches, from the head works at Khánke down to the

south-west boundary of the district at distances usually not exceeding 10 miles, viz. :—

Chapter IV, C.
Prices, Weights and Measures, and Communications.
 Roads, rest-houses, encamping grounds, &c.

<i>Main Line.</i>	Distance from head or from last bungalow at head works.
	Miles.
Khánke--	
Chenáwán	
Bucha	
Ságar	7½
Rhun	6½
Nanuána	8
<i>Vánike Rájba.</i>	
Saidnagar	
Vánike	13
<i>Gajar Gola Rájba.</i>	
Chak Kharal	
<i>Madhora Rájba.</i>	
Matta Jahad	
<i>Kot Rájba.</i>	
Kot Chián	
<i>Kot Nakka Branch.</i>	
Kila Rám Kaur	9½
Shah Jamál	11
Jandoke	10½
Kot Nakka	8½
<i>Jhang Branch.</i>	
Sukheke... ..	12
Hinduána	12
Birunwála	8
<i>Rakh Branch.</i>	
Nabriánwála	2½
Mochiwála (Sukheke)... ..	10
Marh	4½
Sangla	6½
Distance from head or previous Rest-house.	
	Miles.
<i>Mián Ali Branch.</i>	
Meluána	5½
Salar	6
Mangat	4
Pakka Dala	6
Badwáli	11½
<i>Mananwála Rájba.</i>	
Gajiána	11
<i>Karkan Branch.</i>	
Karkan	6
<i>Shahkot Rájba.</i>	
Lakermandi	11½

Chapter IV, C.

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Roads, rest-houses,
encamping grounds,
&c.

These bungalows are available for the use of Civil officers when not occupied by the officers of the Department. They are better constructed and in every way neater and more comfortable than the district rest-houses. Few districts are, therefore, better supplied with rest-houses for camping purposes.

The district does not lack roads, but many of them are of an extremely rough character and impassable in the rains for cart traffic. Of 1,317 miles only 56 are metalled. The most important is the Grand Trunk Road, which runs the whole length of the district from north to south 42 miles, parallel to the railway, but by far the greater bulk of the traffic goes by rail. The next road in importance, from a traffic point of view, is that from Gujránwála to Háfizabad, which is now being metalled by the District Board as far as Kila Didár Singh, 10 miles.

The Gujránwála and Wazírabad tahsils are well provided with communications, as they are in direct contact with the Grand Trunk Road and Railway, and there are several feeder roads connecting the outlying villages with these lines of traffic.

Another road which has increased greatly in importance of late years is that from Sheikhpura to Pindi Bhattián, a section of the old frontier road from Lahore to Bannu, by which much of the produce of the canal-irrigated tracts finds its way to Lahore. The roads in the Háfizabad tahsíl, though numerous and laid out on a most extensive scale, have been so neglected that wheeled traffic is almost unknown and the produce has to be conveyed to the central markets at Gujránwála and Wazírabad on pack animals.

Since colonisation operations began, several new roads have been laid out, and the old ones in this tract, which were formerly merely paths winding through the jungle, have been demarcated and put, in what is by courtesy called, repair. Nearly all these roads radiate from Khángah Dográn to Marh, Sangla, Shahkot, Mananwála, but the road from Sheikhpura to Mananwála and thence on to Pindi Bhattián through Marh is one of the most important, as it is the route followed by colonists from districts east of the Rávi, and goes through the heart of the area colonised in this district.

There are also excellent roads running along the main line of the canal and the branches and leading rájbahás. There is also a road from Gujránwála to Siálkot *via* Daska; this road is bridged throughout and metalled for three miles in the Gujránwála district. It is eight miles in length within the district. The road from Gujránwála to Dinanagar and on to Pasrúr is unmetalled; its length within the district is six miles. The road from Wazírabad to Daska runs for six miles within the district and is unmetalled; that from Wazírabad to Siálkot is metalled. It runs for six miles within the district. The dák bungalows in

the district at Gujranwála and Wazírabad are furnished and provided with servants. The police bungalows and sarái bungalows have a certain amount of furniture, crockery and cooking utensils, but no servants. The canal and district Rest-houses have furniture only.

Chapter IV, C.
Prices, Weights
and Measures, and
Communications.

There are Imperial Post Offices at Gujranwála, Akálgarh, Ahmadanagar, Bainka Chima, Baddoke Gusaián, Butála, Chenáwán, Chabba Sandhuán, Chahil, Dilawán, Eminabad, Ghakhar, Háfizabad, Jhabbar, Jandiála Sher Khan, Jalálpur, Kámoki, Kila Didár Singh, Kila Mián Singh, Kot Bhawáni Dás, Kot Jáfar, Khángah Dográn, Khánke, Karkan, Ladhewála, Matu Bhaike, Miráliwála, Marh, Naushera Nizámabad, Philloke, Pindi Bhattián, Rámnagar, Rámpur, Sheikhupura, Saroke, Sohdra, Vánike, Wazírabad. District dák offices are established in connection with the Primary Schools at Gondlánwála, Chuhar Kána, Dhaunkal, Kaláske, Chak Bhatti, Kaulo Tárar, Kot Hara, Kaloke, Jallan, Karyál, Choránwála and Ajniánwála. They are managed by the school masters, who receive Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per mensem for this addition to their work. A great deal has been done in recent years by the Department and the District Board to improve postal arrangements by opening new offices, putting on additional runners and extra postmen. From the head-quarters at Gujranwála, the post is sent by ekka dák to Háfizabad and thence on to Khángah Dográn, and distributed through the head offices at these centres to all the subordinate offices. Similarly, the post for Gujranwála is first collected at Khángah Dográn and Háfizabad, and then sent in by ekka dák.

Post Offices.

A line of telegraph runs along the whole length of the North-Western main line with a Telegraph Office at each station and an office has now been opened at Eminabad; an Imperial Telegraph connects Wazírabad with Siáلكot, and also with Háfizabad. Khánke, Chenáwán, Akálgarh and Rámnagar are stations on the latter line. This line has been prolonged by the Canal Department along the Rakh Branch, through Marh and Pakka Dalla into the Jhang district, and it is hoped that an office will soon be opened for the public at Khángah Dográn. By the courtesy of the Canal Department, the Deputy Commissioner is allowed to make use of the canal wire.

Telegraph.

CHAPTER V.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

SECTION A.—GENERAL.

Chapter V, A.
General.
Executive and
Judicial.

The Gujránwála District is under the control of the Commissioner of the Ráwalpindi Division. It was transferred from the Lahore Division, with which, geographically and ethnologically, it had a close connection in 1885, but the change has never been popular with the people, Ráwalpindi being 10 hours' journey by rail, Lahore only two, and the question of its re-transfer to Lahore has often been mooted.

The district is within the jurisdiction of the Divisional and Session Judge of Siálkot, but under present arrangements civil appeals are disposed of by the Divisional Judge of Lahore. Thus appellants in revenue, civil and criminal cases have to go to Ráwalpindi, Lahore and Siálkot, respectively—obviously a most inconvenient arrangement.

The ordinary head-quarters staff of the district consists of a Deputy Commissioner, an Assistant Commissioner in training, a Subordinate Judge, generally with the powers of Additional District Judge, two Extra Assistant Commissioners and a Revenue Extra Assistant Commissioner. There are now four tahsils in the district, *viz.*, Gujránwála, Wazírabad, Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn, the last of which was established in October 1893, being formed out of the southern half of the old Háfizabad tahsil. Each tahsil is in charge of a Tahsildár assisted by a Náib. The village Revenue staff is shown in the

Tahsil.	Office kánungos.	Field kánungos.	Pat-wáris.	Assistants.
Gujránwála... ..	1	4	100	6
Wazírabad	1	3	60	4
Háfizabad	1	5	80	4
Khángah Dográn... ..	1	3	30	2
New Colony			25	

m a r g i n .
There are four Munsiffs in the district, one each at Wazírabad, Háfizabad, and two at Gujránwála.

The Háfizabad Munsiff also has jurisdiction in Khángah Dográn. The statistics of civil and revenue litigation for the years 1888-94 are given in Table No. XXXIX. The executive staff of the district is assisted by a bench of four Honorary Magistrates at Gujránwála and of two at Wazírabad; by Rája Harbans Singh, Honorary Magistrate at Sheikhupura, and Rája Atta-ulla Khan, Honorary Extra Assistant Commissioner, at Wazírabad. All these benches and Honorary Magistrates have 2nd class powers. The Gujránwála Bench has jurisdiction within the city and sadr thánás, the Wazírabad Bench

within the town only. Rája Harbans Singh's jurisdiction extends over his own *jágir*, embracing 169 villages in Gujranwála and Khángah Dográn, while Rája Atta-ulla Khan's extends over the Wazírabad thána excluding the city. Rája Atta-ulla Khan has also the powers of a 2nd class and Rája Harbans Singh of a 3rd class Munsiff.

Chapter V, A.
General.
Executive and Judicial.

The police force is controlled by a District Superintendent

Class of Police.	Total strength.	DISTRIBUTION.	
		Standing guards.	Protection.
District (Imperial)	487	278	209
Municipal ...	120	...	120
Total ...	607	278	329

of Police. The strength and distribution of the force is given in the margin. The standing guards include 81 men employed at Chenáwán Central Jail, and nine at the punitive police

Criminals, police and jails.

post of Firoz-Bhikki. Besides the above there is a force of five *chaukidárs* and one *daffadár* at Kila Didár Singh, but these are not enlisted under the Police Act V of 1861. In addition to the police force there are 1,515 village watchmen who are paid from the *chaukidára* cess of the villages, levied on houses according to the circumstances of the residents. The thánás or head-quarter stations of circles of police jurisdiction and the *chaukís* or police outposts are as follows. The area in square miles, according to the recent survey, and the population, according to census of 1891, are also given.

Tahsíl Gujranwála.

Thánás (Police Stations).	Number of villages.	Area in square miles.	Population.
Gujranwála sadr	151	244	91,608
Gujranwála city	1	2	26,785
Kámoke	175	315	84,477
Kila Didár Singh	128	194	66,296
Total	455	755	269,166

Chaukís (outposts).

Eminabad.
Nangal Duna Singh.
Sahdoke.
Naushahra.
Dera Dundu Rám.

Thána to which attached.

Kámoke.
Do.
Do.
Do.
Kila Didár Singh.

Chapter V, A.

Tahsil Háfizabad.

General.
Criminals, police
and jails.

Thánás (Police Stations).	Number of villages.	Area in square miles.	Popula- tion.
Háfizabad	145	356	62,343
Vánike	113	226	39,304
Pindi Bhattián	144	295	52,387
Total	402	877	154,034

*Chaukís (outposts).*Shamír
Sukheki.*Thána to which attached.*Háfizabad.
Do.*Tahsil Wazírabad.*

Thánás (Police Stations).	Number of villages.	Area in square miles.	Popula- tion.
Wazírabad sadr	149	221	100,775
Wazírabad city	1	1	15,786
Akálgarh	116	228	67,045
Total	266	450	183,606

*Chaukís (outposts).*Gakhar.
Rámnagar.*Thána to which attached.*Wazírabad.
Akálgarh.*Tahsil Khángah Dográn.*

Thánás (Police Stations).	Number of villages.	Area in square miles.	Popula- tion.
Khángah Dográn	72	284	30,162
Sheikhúpara	60	221	36,493
Shahkot	86	298	16,708
Total	218	803	83,363

*Chaukís (outposts).*Chuharkána.
Mananwála.*Thána to which attached.*Khángah Dográn.
Shahkot.

The thánás of Gujránwála city and Wazírabad city and the outposts of Eminabad and Rámnagar are held by Municipal police. The rest are Imperial. The thánás have lately been recast to bring them into conformity with tahsil and *zail* boundaries. Two new thánás, Shahkot and Vánike, were added in 1893, but no proper buildings have yet been erected. The population of Shahkot thána is now at least double that shown above, as it includes most of the newly colonised area. A punitive police post has recently been established at the village of Bhikki in the Sheikhúpara thána. The cost is distributed over this and five adjoining villages notorious for cattle lifting. The district lies within the Ráwalpindi Police Circle, under the control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police of the Western Circle, stationed at Ráwalpindi.

Chapter V, A.

General.

Criminals, police and jails.

The District Jail at the sadr contains accommodation for 348 male and 12 female convicts and is generally full. Life and long term prisoners are transferred to the Lahore or Chenáwán Central Jails. The Central Jail at Chenáwán, about 18 miles down the river from Wazírabad, was opened in 1883 as a temporary arrangement to provide accommodation for the convicts employed in excavating the Chenáb Canal. Owing to the subsequent development of, and changes in, the scheme, it has been maintained up to date. The number of prisoners is generally about 1,000, and over half of these are employed in gangs on earthwork on the Chenáb Canal. The jail is in charge of a Medical Officer who is also Superintendent.

Table No. XL gives statistics of criminal trials, Table No. XLI of police inquiries, and Table No. XLII of convicts in jail for the last five years.

Tribe.	Men.	Male children.	Total.
Sánsis ...	1,173	590	1,763

The Sánsis are proclaimed under the Criminal Tribes Act, and the number on the register on the 31st December 1894 is shown in the margin. The women of this tribe have been

exempted from the operation of the Act by order of Government. The Sánsis from time immemorial have been addicted to house-breaking, theft and highway robberies. They are being gradually reclaimed by employment in cultivating lands for the zamindárs and menial capacities. The men of the tribe are registered, and not permitted to leave their villages without tickets-of-leave, which they obtain on application at the police station within which they reside, and which they show at the police station in which they take up their temporary residence. The police when out patrolling look them up to see that none are absent without leave. The lambardár of the village can give leave of absence up to 24 hours.

Chapter V. A.
General.
Pounds

The following is a list of the cattle-pounds in the district showing in whose charge they are :—

Gujránwála city	In charge of Municipal Committee.
Gujránwála	The Police.
Kámoke	Do.
Kila Didár Singh	Do.
Wazírabad	Do.
Gakhar	Do.
Akálgarh	Do.
Háfizabad	Do.
Vánike	Do.
Pindi Bhattián	Do.
Khángah Dográn	Do.
Shekhúpara	Do.
Rámnagar	Municipal Committee.
Kot Jáfar	Zaildár of Kot Jáfar.
Khánke	Executive Engineer, 1st Division, Chenáb Canal.
Mujawarwála	Tahsildár, Khángah Dográn.
Sangla	District Board.
Marh	Tahsildár, Khángah Dográn.
Mananwála	The Police.
Shahkot	District Board.

The District Board has now proposed to take over the management of all the cattle-pounds in the district, except those at Khánke and Gujránwála city, Rámnagar and Wazírabad. The Municipal Committees of the latter two places have proposed to take over these two pounds.

Revenue

The gross revenue collections of the district for the last 25 years, so far as they are made by the Financial Commissioner, are shown in Table No. XXVIII, while Tables Nos. XXIX, XXXV and XXXIII give further details for land revenue, excise and stamps, respectively.

Table No. XXIIIA shows the number and situation of Registration Offices. There are four non-official Sub-Registrars, one in each tahsil, viz. :—

Lála Barkat Rám, Pleader, at the sadr.

Sardár Dyál Singh, Cháchi, at Wazírabad.

Lála Harsukh Rái, late Deputy Inspector of Police, at Háfizabad.

Mirza Mahmúd Beg, late Inspector of Police, at Khángah Dográn.

Excise.

There is one central distillery for the manufacture of country liquor, situated at Gujránwála, and from this a good deal of liquor is sent to Siálkot, Gujrát, Shahpur, Ráwalpindi and even Pesháwar. The central distilleries at Wazírabad and Háfizabad have been abolished. Poppy is cultivated in this

Tahsil.	Area in acres.	Acreage duty in rupees.
Gujránwála	29	147
Wazírabad	23	116
Háfizabad	12	82

district to a small extent. The figures given in the margin show the area under cultivation and the acreage duty levied on it in the year 1893-94.

The annual income is now about Rs. 91,000, but it will continue to increase considerably for some years owing to the levy of local rates in the newly colonised area. The District Board as at present constituted under Act XX of 1883 consists of 24 members with the Deputy Commissioner as *ex-officio* President. Of these members, 16 are elected, being delegates from the Local Boards, *viz.*, 6 from the Gujránwála, 5 from the Wazírabad, and 5 from the Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn tahsils. The rest are nominated, *viz.*, four appointed by name and four *ex-officio*, *viz.*, the Deputy Commissioner, the Civil Surgeon, the District Inspector of Schools and the Executive Engineer. With the exception of these *ex-officio* members the term of office for members, whether elected or appointed, is three years. The three Local Boards which return delegates to the District Board consist of the following members:—

Gujránwála	20 elected, 4 nominated.
Wazírabad	18 " 4 "
Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn ...	19 " 4 "

Each *zail* elects one member. No separate Local Board has yet been constituted for the new Khángah Dográn tahsil. The Tahsildárs are *ex-officio* members. A scheme for the abolition of the Local Boards, and the reconstitution of the District Board, by which the latter would consist of 36 members, *viz.*, 24 elected direct—one for every one or more *zails*—and 12 appointed by name or office, has recently been submitted.

Table No. XLV gives statistics of Municipal income, while the municipalities themselves are noticed in Chapter VI. Four small municipalities, Pindi Bhattián, Háfizabad, Jalálpur and Sohdra were abolished between 1886 and 1890, but under Chapter X of Act XX of 1891, Háfizabad and Sohdra have been recently declared notified areas. The octroi system

Source of income.	Amount.
	Rs.
Ferries	5,067
Dák bungalow, Wazírabad	179
Encamping grounds	528
Nazúl property	21
Cattle-pounds	6,152
Total	11,947

Chapter V, A.
General.
Excise District Funds.

Table No. XXXVI gives the income and expenditure from District Funds. The

Municipal income.

is in force in all the municipalities and notified areas, and is the chief source of income. The income from Provincial properties for 1893-94 is shown in the margin. The ferries, bungalows and encamping grounds have already

been noticed at pages 123-128, and the cattle-pounds at page 134.

Chapter V, A.

GUJRANWALA DISTRICT.

General.
District Funds.Statement showing income from Provincial properties for five years
from 1889-90 to 1893-94.

Source of income.	1889-90.	1890-91.	1891-92.	1892-93.	1893-94.	
	Rs. <i>Nil.</i>	Rs. <i>Nil.</i>	Rs. <i>Nil.</i>	Rs. <i>Nil.</i>	Rs. <i>Nil.</i>	
Ferries with boat-bridges						All managed by Government.
„ without „ ...	8,319	8,860	8,419	6,197	5,067	
Staging bungalows ...	207	250	182	202	179	
Encamping grounds ...	739	1,089	632	517	528	
Cattle-pounds ...	2,781	4,604	3,809	5,819	6,152	
Nazúl properties ...	18	11	9	8	21	
Total ...	12,064	14,704	13,051	12,743	11,947	
Nazúl properties managed by District Board.	165	210	150	178	185	
Nazúl properties managed by Municipal Commit- tees.	62	76	86	88	88	

The list of *nazúl* properties in charge of the District Board and the Municipal Committees and that in charge of Government is as follows:—

District Board.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Atálgarh well in Gujránwála. | 7. A well at Salár. |
| 2. Well in Lohiánwála. | 8 & 9. Houses in Jandiála Sher Khan. |
| 3. Land in Dádwáli. | 10. Well Panjáb Singh. |
| 4. Do. Sheikhupura. | 11. Do. Theri Sánísián. |
| 5. A well at Jhabbar. | 12. Well land in Kíla Morád Bakhsh. |
| 6. Do. Ajniánwála. | |

Municipal Committee, Wazírabad.

- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. House near Lahori Gate in lieu of six shops, or musáfar-khána, Wazírabad. | 3. Siálkot Gate, Wazírabad. |
| 2. Land attached to Takia Dáim, Wazírabad. | 4. Lahori Gate, Wazírabad. |
| | 5. Akálgarh Gate, Wazírabad. |

Municipal Committee, Rámnagar.

- 1 & 2. Two shops at Rámnagar.

Buildings managed by Government on the Nazúl Register.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. Kacha fort at Udhowáli. | 6. Katra Namakwála (salt market), Rámnagar. |
| 2. Kacha stables at Naushera, now used as school house. | 7. A piece of land at Sohdra. |
| 3. Old shops at Wazírabad, now quite demolished. | 8. A Do. do. near gate Boharwála, Akálgarh. |
| 4. A piece of land near gate Sohdra, Wazírabad. | 9. A piece of land in front of Abkári building, Wazírabad. |
| 5. A piece of land belonging to garden Chathawála, Rámnagar. | 10. Eastern gate, Jalálpur. |
| | 11. Kacha fort, Súngla. |
| | 12. Eastern gate, Sheikhúpara. |

REMARKS.—The District Board is managing the *nazúl* properties entrusted to its charge and paying an annual contribution of Rs. 105 to the Provincial revenues in lieu of the income received by it, from 1st April 1886.

Chapter V, A.
General.
District Funds.

The Municipal Committees of Wazirabad and Rám Nagar do not pay any compensation to Government, and the income and the expenditure are both credited to and paid from Municipal Funds.

Wazirabad.—The Municipal Committee lately sent up a proposal that the six *nazúl* shops entrusted to its management be alienated and a house near the Lahori Gate, which was a private property, be acquired instead. The owners of the private house agreed to take over the six shops in lieu of their house, and the proposal was sanctioned by Government. This private house is next door to the Lahori Gate which serves for the private residence of Tahsildár and Náib-Tahsildár.

The *dák* bungalow at Gujranwála is in charge of the Municipal Committee, Gujranwála, which receives a grant of Rs. 130 per annum for its maintenance from Provincial revenues. The receipts against “staging bungalow” in the statement only represents “Wazirabad *dák* bungalow receipts.”

Figures for other Government estates are given in Table No. XVII, and they and their proceeds are noticed in the succeeding section of this Chapter in which the land revenue administration of the district is treated of. Table No. XXIX gives figures for the principal items and the totals of land revenue collected since 1868-69.

Table No. XXXI gives details of balances, remissions and agricultural advances for the last ten years: Table No. XXX shows the amount of assigned land revenue, while Table No. XIV gives the areas upon which the present land revenue of the district is based. The total cultivated area in the old villages at the recent re-assessment was 800,015 acres, and the total assessment, including Rs. 5,892 deferred assessments, was Rs. 8,83,226, giving an incidence of Rs. 1-1-8 per acre. Further details as to the basis, incidence, and working of the current settlement will be found below in Section B. of this Chapter.

Table No. XXXVII gives figures for the Government Board and Aided Schools of the district, High, Middle and Primary. The High Schools which teach up to the Entrance Standard are the American Mission School at Gujranwála and the Scotch Mission School at Wazirabad. These have already been noticed. There is no Government High School at Gujranwála. There are English Middle Schools for boys at Gujranwála and Akálgarh, and Vernacular Middle Schools at Háfizabad, Rám Nagar, Kila Didár Singh, Pindi Bhattián and Sohdra. A scheme for the conversion of the Vernacular Middle School at Háfizabad

Education.

Chapter V, A.
General.
Education.

into an Anglo-Vernacular School is now under consideration. The Primary Schools which number 64 are situated as below :—

Tahsil Gujranwála, 29.

Eminabad.	Abdal.
Santpura.	Arúp.
Firozwála.	Ballewála.
Kámoke.	Mattu Bhaike.
Mirálíwála.	Butala Jhanda Singh.
Sadhu Guraya.	" Sharm Singh.
Ladhewála Varáich.	Matta.
Chahil.	Naushabra Virkan.
Jalan.	Gondlánwála.
Chaba Sindhwán.	Bhánoke.
Kot Bhawáni Dás.	Búpra.
Mandiála Varáich.	Mughal Chak.
Kila Mián Singh.	Karyál.
Kot Sa'adulla.	Papnákha.
Philloke.	

Tahsil Wazirabad, 19.

Baddoke Gusáin.	Diláwar.
Gakhar.	Mandiála Chatla.
Bainka Chima.	Saroke.
Ladhewála Chima.	Kot Harra.
Kilaske.	Ahmadnagar.
Nidála Pakka.	Dhaunkal.
Jhattánwáli.	Wazirabad.
Kot Jáfar.	

Tahsil Háfizabad, 10.

Chak Bhattí.	Rámke Chatha.
Jalálpur.	Kaulo Tárar.
Rámpur.	Vanike.
Kot Nakka.	Kaliánwála.
Sukheki.	Lawere.

Tahsil Khángah Dográn, 6.

Sheikhupura.	Varan.
Jandiála Sher Khan.	Chuharkána.
Kaloke.	Jhabbar.

All these schools are maintained by the District Board which spends nearly Rs. 25,000 per annum on education. The facilities provided for primary education are readily availed of by all classes in Gujranwála and Wazirabad, but in Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn even primary education is still backward, though signs are not wanting that the people are beginning to shake of their attitude of indifference. New English schools under private management are springing up which do not receive any aid from public funds. There are two schools of this class in the town of Gujranwála, *viz.*, the Khálsa School, which teaches up to the Entrance Standard, and the Islámia School, which teaches up to the Middle School Standard. Schools of this description exist also at Eminabad and Háfizabad, but these are still in their infancy.

For the advantage of boys passing the Middle School Examination in the Vernacular and desirous of prosecuting their studies in English, special classes are formed in the Mission Schools

at Gujranwála and Wazirabad, and the Khálsa School at Gujranwála. In these classes special arrangements are made to prepare the students for the Middle School Examination in English only, after which they join the regular High School course. There is also in the town of Gujranwála a Girls' School with several branches supported by American Missionaries, and five Female Schools maintained from Municipal and Provincial Funds. In one school of each of these groups instruction is given up to the Middle Standard Examination. The district lies within the Lahore circle which forms the charge of the Inspector of Schools at Lahore.

Table No. XIII gives statistics of education collected at the census of 1891, and the general state of education has already been described at page 52. Besides the schools mentioned above, there is no other particular private school requiring notice, except one small *pátskhála* maintained from the estate of the late Rai Múl Singh, where many poor Brahmíns and Hindu mendicants get lessons in Sanskrit as well as their food, and Muhammadan and Sanskrit Schools at Wazirabad supported by a *muáfi* grant. There are several indigenous schools throughout the district, and a number of them receive grants-in-aid from District and Municipal Funds under special rules in the Punjab Education Code. These aided indigenous schools are practically taking the place of new Board Schools, and by giving small grants to them Local Bodies are relieved from the necessity of opening Board Schools of their own. At present the number of such schools is over 30 ; many of them are low-caste schools maintained by the American Mission.

The Gujranwála Municipal School was founded as a Vernacular School in 1856. It was converted in May 1860 to a Zillah School, teaching up to the Matriculation Standard of the Calcutta University. For two or three years a small number of candidates were prepared for the University Entrance Examination, but the attendance was poor in all the classes. As it did not flourish as a High School, this branch was abandoned and the school converted into a Middle School in 1869, since when it has made decided progress.

In 1886 the school with its entire staff was handed over to the municipality, which now manages it and receives from Government a contribution equal to the gross expenditure of the school less the income from fees and the sum formerly contributed by it for the salaries of part of the establishment. The school is now called the Gujranwála Municipal Board School. The present main school is located in a commodious *pakka* building in the western portion of the city. The school is under the direct supervision and management of a Head Master who has four Assistants, *viz.*, two English Masters, a Mathematical Teacher and a Persian Teacher. These work immediately under him in the Middle Department. In the Upper Primary Department there are six teachers, three English and three Vernacular.

Chapter V, A.
General.
Gujránwála Municipal School.

Besides the teachers abovementioned, both the Middle and the Upper Primary Departments have the services of a teacher of Persian Calligraphy and a teacher of Gymnastics and Drill. The Lower Primary Department consists of three branches, each of which has three teachers. The branches are located in separate

Year.	Expenditure, sanctioned and non-sanctioned contingencies, and scholarships, municipal and district.	Number of pupils on roll at close of March each year.	Middle School Examination results.
			Number of passes.
	Rs.		
1889-90	6,830	403	16
1890-91	6,880	421	28
1891-92	6,833	443	25
1892-93	6,970	439	10
1893-94	7,099	387	29

parts of the city, one of them occupying the house where Mahárája Ranjit Singh is said to have been born. Figures are given in the margin for each of the last five years showing (a) expenditure, (b) number of pupils, (c) results as shown by examinations.

The Board Schools and the Primary Aided Schools in the district are supervised by a District Inspector of Schools. All the Middle and High Schools have boarding-houses attached to them, where students from a distance get lodging and cooked food at a very moderate expense. A Gymnastic Master is employed to teach gymnastics and drill to the schools in the district. A Teachers' Association has been founded with the object of enabling selected teachers from distant parts of the district to meet once or twice a year to discuss educational subjects connected with their work. On the whole, the district may be said to have made exceptional progress in educational matters, and the Local Bodies as a rule show great interest in the subject.

Medical.

There are now twelve dispensaries in the Gujránwála district under the general control of the Civil Surgeon. They are established at Gujránwála (where there are two, the main and the city dispensaries), Wazírabad, Háfizabad, Rámnagar, Akálgarh, Pindi Bhattián, Khángah Dográn, Sháhkot, Sheikhpura, Butála, and Eminabad. Those at Butála, Akálgarh, Sháhkot, Khángah Dográn, Eminabad and in Gujránwála city have been established within the last four years, and that at Sheikhpura was transferred in 1894 from Jhabbar where it was doing little good. Table No. XXXVIII shows the working of the dispensaries for the last five years, 1888-92. It is satisfactory to note that private enterprise has of late years done much towards the extension of medical relief. To the dispensary at Butála, Sardar Balwant Singh, E. A. C., generously contributes Rs. 20 a month, and it is called by his name, and with like liberality Rája Harbans Singh contributes Rs. 30 per month to the maintenance of the dispensary at Sheikhpura, which also is named after him.

To the newly established dispensary at Eminabad the Dewáns of the place, notably Dewáns Amar Nath and Lachman Das, who have given subscriptions of Rs. 500 and Rs. 1,000 res-

pectively, have liberally subscribed, and Dewán Gobind Sahai has provided the dispensary building.

The sadar and branch dispensaries at Gujranwála are maintained by the Municipal Committee. The dispensary at Wazirabad has since 1894 been in charge of an Assistant Surgeon. It is supported by Municipal Funds, the Railway Department paying Rs. 20 per mensem as share of the maintenance charges. The cost of the Rám-nagar dispensary is borne by the Municipal Committee and District Board in proportion of one-third and two-thirds, respectively. Akálgarh is in charge of a qualified 1st grade Compounder and is maintained by the District Board and Municipal Committee. The rest of the dispensaries are in charge of Hospital Assistants and maintained from District Funds, but half of the cost of the Shahkot dispensary is paid by the Jhang District Board, and the Municipal Committee, Eminabad gives a grant of Rs. 20 per mensem to the dispensary there. The district is now very well provided with dispensaries at suitable centres, much improvement having been effected of late years.

This institution which is a dispensary of the first class was opened in 1854. The present building is situated close to the Railway Station and Post Office, in the immediate vicinity of the town and due north of it. It contains two main wards for male patients, a separate ward for female patients, a detached ward, a lunatic ward, an operating room and a dead-house. There is accommodation for 16 male and 8 female patients. A separate ward for well-to-do patients is now in course of construction. Since 1889 the dispensary has been in charge of an Assistant Surgeon. It appears to be very popular and is largely resorted to by all classes of the native community. In addition to the ordinary medical establishment, 12 hakims or practitioners after the native method are maintained by the District Board, and one by the Municipality of Wazirabad. Their posts are to be abolished as they die off.

There is a small Church at Gujranwála, capable of seating some 80 or 90 persons. No Chaplain is posted there, but the Chaplain of Siálkot visits the station about every quarter to hold service.

The engineering and traffic arrangements of the portion of the North-Western Railway which runs through the district are under the Executive Engineer, North-Western Railway, and District Traffic Superintendent, stationed at Lahore. The head-quarters of the Engineer-in-Chief of the Wazirabad-Mooltan Railway now under construction are at Wazirabad. The great military highway of Northern India, known as the Grand Trunk Road connecting Bengal, Hindustán and the Punjab proper with the north-west frontier at Pesháwar, runs almost parallel to the railway line, and the portion in this district is under the Executive Engineer of the Gujranwála Division, stationed at Gujranwála. The Provincial Works in the district are also under

Chapter V, A.

General.

Medical.

Gujranwála Sadar
Dispensary.

Ecclesiastical.

Head-quarters of
other Departments.

Chapter V, B.

Lands and Land Revenue.

Head-quarters of other Departments.

his control. The first, second, and part of the fourth Divisions of the Chenáb Canal are in this district, with head-quarters at Khánke, where the head of the canal is Gujránwála and Lahore, respectively. The forests of the district are under the Deputy Conservator of Forests, Gujránwála Division, stationed at Gujránwála. The telegraph lines and offices are controlled by the Telegraph Superintendent at Lahore, and the Post Offices by the Superintendent of Post Offices, Gujránwála Division, at Gujránwála.

SECTION B.—LAND AND LAND REVENUE.

The Sikh revenue system.

The revenue history of the district in so far as it bears on present conditions begins with the Sikhs. During the rise of Sikh power and the struggle of the rival confederacies for ascendancy, roughly from 1750 to 1810 A. D., there was no fixed policy at all; might was right. In fact, the state of things cannot be more appropriately described than in the quotations

“Because—

“The good old rule sufficeth them, the simple plan :

“That they should take who have the power.

“And they should keep who can.”

By 1810 A. D., after nearly a century of anarchy fatal to all material improvement, in which nearly every village was sacked or burned by one or other of the contending parties, or deserted by the owners owing to the general insecurity and successive famines, the district had fallen into the strong hands of Ranjít Singh, and comparative order and security were restored. The Mahárajá's fiscal policy was two-fold. Part of the district was portioned out to the local chiefs or his own followers on a semi-feudal system, to make what they could out of the people, subject to the obligation of military service; the rest was farmed out in groups of villages to kárdárs or farmers of the revenue, who contracted to make certain fixed payments to the Royal Treasury at Lahore. The kárdárs and jágírdárs alike realised the revenue direct from the cultivators by *kankít* or appraisement of the crop, *batai* or division of the crop, and *chikota* or lump payments in kind and cash, changing one mode for another as they found it to their profit. Each system pressed equally hard on the people who were regarded as a sponge to be squeezed to the utmost limit compatible with their continuing to cultivate, and when they refused or were unable to pay, the land was made over to outsiders. The results of this system are thus described by Mr. Morris:—

“The evil consequences attendant on this system are worthy of notice, if only to show what the effect has been on our present system of revenue collections. First, it made the people improvident: they knew that the more they worked and the larger their returns, so in proportion would the Government

demand be enhanced ; whilst the more idle they were, the less would they have to pay to Government. Thus was a premium offered for idleness. Secondly, it was directly to the advantage of the kárdár that the cultivation should increase. It therefore became his interest to give over the land to those who would till it best, who were generally mere cultivators. Thus the rights of proprietors were disregarded, and the value of property consequently decreased. The result of this depreciation in the value of property in land is that, instead of finding the village communities strong, with elements of stability in them, we see them weak, unable to afford help to each other, and one and all repudiating the principle of joint responsibility. The consequence of this *kan* (*kankut*) system has been to make the people improvident to the last degree. They have never been accustomed to pay for more or less than the actual return of the crop. They do not understand providing for the exigencies of a bad season by laying by from a good one : consequently fixed and regular money payments are very unpopular with them. Again, formerly they always looked to Government for help in sinking wells, &c. This help they readily got from the kárdárs, who were personally interested in extending the cultivation. The result is that now they can do nothing for themselves."

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The assessment so demanded and realised would now seem to us incredible. In the richest portion of the district, *viz.*, along its eastern boundary, the ordinary rate was one-half or two-fifths of the produce, or a fixed charge of Re. 1 in the kharíf and two mans of wheat in the rabi per acre, which would now be equivalent to an assessment of Rs. 5 per acre. Good wells with 30 to 50 acres attached had to pay Rs. 120 to Rs. 200. The only exception to the general fiscal oppression was Dewán Sáwan Mal, who about 1825 A. D. obtained the Bár and adjoining Bár tracts in the Háfizabad tahsil, partly in farm and partly in *jágir*. He encouraged the pastoral tribes of the Bár to found villages and settle down permanently to agriculture by allowing them to hold the land at a very lenient assessment, ultimately fixed at Rs. 62 per well. He also made remissions in favour of those who founded new villages or sunk new wells. Were it not for this wise and far-seeing policy, the nomads of the Gujránwála Bár would never have settled on the soil, but would have remained homeless and landless vagabonds as their brethren in Jhang or Montgomery are to-day. This striking exception, however, only heightened the effect of the general oppression. In addition to the ordinary revenue demand, there were a multitude of petty exactions known as *nazar*, *farashkhana*, *topkhana*, *hooli*, varying from Re. 1 per well per harvest to Rs. 2 per village, while villages at a distance from the central market had to pay an addition of from 8 annas to Re. 1 per *máni* of 8 mans for difference of prices and cost of carriage. A more crushing exaction was the free-quartering of troops on the people and the necessity of furnishing supplies for the Sikh armies on their way to the frontier, the high road to which lay through the centre of the district. In fact on few, if any, districts in the Punjab did the hand of the Sikhs fall more heavily than on this. The result was that under Sikh rule proprietary rights had no value, the distinction between owner and tenant was unknown, the State demand absorbing all the profits of cultivation, and the possession of land was regarded rather as a burden than a privilege. At annexation consequently we found the district impoverished and

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demoralized, the village communities weak and repudiating the principles of joint responsibility, the people leading a hand to mouth existence from harvest to harvest, unable or unwilling to do anything for themselves and averse to a fixed system of money payments. Few districts, therefore, had a worse start under British rule, and unfortunately the effect of our first experiments in assessment, in which we took as a standard the amount which the Sikhs had been able to dragoon out of the people, was rather to increase the demoralization than to check it.

Summary settlement.

The summary settlement of the district was made in 1847-48 by Mr. Cocks and Major Lake, Assistants to the Resident. The basis of calculation was the collections in grain and kind for the previous five years, lists of which were supplied by the kárdárs. The grain payments were commuted into cash at the rate of prices then prevailing, which, owing to the demand for supplies for the troops in the field, happened to be exceptionally high; and an all-round reduction of 10 per cent. being allowed, the balance was announced as a fixed cash demand. The total for the whole district was Rs. 6,69,550, and the incidence per cultivated acre Rs. 1-9-3. From the methods employed it was inevitable that the assessment should be glaringly unequal, but in addition it was oppressively severe. For a few years the zamíndárs, buoyed up by high prices, paid the demand with some regularity, if not with ease: At annexation prices fell owing to the disbandment of enormous bodies of troops, the income from service fell off, money became scarcer, while the demand for it owing to the new system of fixed money payment increased. A severe drought in 1849 increased the strain, and another and more disastrous drought in 1851, accompanied by a deadly epidemic of murrain among the cattle, brought matters to a crisis and made it apparent that the summary settlement which had originally been announced for only three years, but eventually ran on for seven, could not be maintained without ruining the district. Every year the collections proved difficult and balances accrued. From 1849 to 1853 the balances averaged $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the demand, rising in 1849 and 1853 to 10 and 15 per cent., respectively. The pressure was most severe in the highly irrigated tracts of Gujránwála and Wazírabad which had suffered most from the exactions of the Sikhs and were least able to bear the strain of over-assessment. In the Gujránwála pargana, for instance, a balance of over 17 per cent. accrued, and the number of wells deserted in one year exceeded 300.

Regular settlement.

It was evident that a reduction of assessment was urgently needed, and in 1851 the regular settlement was begun by Mr. Temple who was in charge of the operations for the whole Rechna Doáb with Mr. Morris as his Assistant for the Gujránwála district and the trans-Rávi portion of Lahore. In 1853 Mr. Morris received independent charge and completed the

operations in 1856. The standpoint from which he approached his task is thus described by him in his report:—

“It was evident that reduction was necessary, and that to ensure for the future regular payments, and determine on an assessment that could be reasonably expected to work well through any number of years, a considerable amount of Government revenue must be sacrificed. The following considerations also convinced me that a light assessment only could work well and successfully in the tract:—*viz.*, the general inferiority of the soil; great depth of water from the surface; the absence of development of natural resources; the nomad character of the people; their idleness and improvidence; their thievish propensities and aversion to money payments; the absence of proprietary rights and low value of landed property; the scantiness of the population, and absence of cultivators.”

His method of assessment was briefly to divide each *parwana* into assessment circles, and having regard to the revenue history, agricultural statistics, and existing condition of each circle, to determine the general amount of reduction necessary. Having collected his assessment data, *viz.*, rates on wells, rates on yokes, rates levied by the Sikhs, *tahsildar's* estimate and a produce estimate based on the assumption that the Government was entitled to one-sixth of the gross produce on irrigated and one-fifth on unirrigated lands, he deduced from them the rates necessary to bring out the desired result. In all but the river circles the rates he finally adopted were not so much soil rates as lump sums on well areas, which in each circle he divided into three classes according to their condition, efficiency, quality of the soil, and number of yokes attached. The method was in accordance with the practice of the people in distributing the revenue. His village assessments were worked out on much the same principle, but were further modified by the grant of such temporary reduction for the first two or three years in favour of estates which had suffered materially from the drought of 1849-51 as would enable them to recover from their depression.

The financial result of the re-assessment was to reduce the original summary settlement demand, excluding petty *muafis* by about 19 per cent., *viz.*:—

Tahsil.	Summary settlement.	Regular settlement.	Percentage of reduction.	Incidence of regular settlement per cultivated acre.
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs. a. p.
Gujranwala	2,91,578	2,32,781	20	1 4 10
Wazirabad	2,01,567	1,67,645	17	1 8 8
Hafizabad	1,76,405	1,42,936	19	1 0 8
Total ...	6,69,550	5,43,362	19	1 4 6

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In Gujránwála and Wazírabad the cultivated land alone was assessed. In the Háfizabad Adjoining Bár and Bár villages, a sum of about Rs. 3,000 was assessed on the waste, calculated at the rate of Re. 1 per 100 head of cattle. This *tirni* assessment was clearly inadequate, and villages with little cultivation and large profits from cattle and from the produce of waste land escaped very lightly, while the burden of assessment was thrown on villages which had broken up their waste.

The relief given by the regular settlement was great, but the people had been so sorely tried by the over-assessment of past years following on the oppressive exaction of the Sikhs that they were averse to binding themselves to a fixed cash assessment even when this gave a substantial reduction of the old demand. The most delicate and arduous task connected with the settlement was to induce them to engage for the revenue, and, when they had been so engaged, to prevent them from repudiating their responsibilities. Mr. Temple, who gave out the assessments of Gujránwála and Wazírabad in 1853, notes:—

“When I announced the *jamá*s I could see that in their hearts the people were unwilling to enter into any engagements at all for cash payments. In several cases Mr. Morris had shown consideration to villages that had suffered most from the drought of 1851 by offering them reduced *jamá*s for the first two years. “The reduced *jamá*s were accepted and the usual engagement given in, but, in Mr. Morris’s words, no sooner did the time for enhancement arrive than the people gave in a petition begging to be released from their engagements.”

Such cases of recusancy were rigorously dealt with by the Settlement Officer, who procured the transference of the share of such recusants to more solvent shareholders, or its temporary alienation to farmers, who agreed to pay the Government revenue, or its sale to the highest bidder. In Gujránwála 15 estates were wholly, and 2 partly, transferred to outsiders; in Wazírabad one whole estate and one-third of another were similarly transferred under pressure of the assessment; while in Háfizabad the transfer covered one whole estate, one-half of two, one-third of two, one-fourth of two and one-sixth of three estates. In addition to these transfers of whole estates or shares, no less than 280 cases of transfers of holdings covering about 14,000 acres took place; the old owners in most cases owing to poverty or the pressure of assessment voluntarily transferring their shares to more solvent shareholders. By these methods a serious expropriation of the old proprietors in favour of capitalists or speculators in land was begun, which was the subject of long and bitter controversy at the time. Ultimately it was laid down by the Lieutenant-Governor that the refusal of a proffered *jama* by the proprietors does not render the compulsory sale of their land legal; all that they can be made to forfeit are the privileges of contracting for the payment of the Government revenue and of managing the estate. On this principle being applied, temporary farm (*mustajiri*) took the place of permanent alienation, and efforts subsequently made to reinstate the old

owners by compromise with the alienee were generally successful except in cases where whole estates had been transferred to wealthy capitalists like the Dewáns of Eminabad and the Sardárs of Butála, who claimed to hold on the ground that they had spent money on the property.

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In spite of an all-round reduction of 19 per cent., there is no doubt that, judged by our present standard of assessment, *viz.*, half assets, Mr. Morris's assessment was too high. This is apparent from the facts that his demand per cultivated acre was from 6 to 16 per cent. above the incidence of Mr. O'Dwyer's present assessment, though prices have probably increased 50 per cent since, and that during the currency of the regular settlement profit rents were almost unknown, the owners in most cases being only too glad to get tenants to cultivate on condition of paying the Government revenue with a nominal *málikána*. All over the district, and especially in the most highly developed tracts, it soon became apparent that some villages were over-assessed. Balances began to accrue, and in many estates reductions had to be given. In 1858 a general enquiry into the conditions of the more depressed estates was carried out by the Commissioner, the result of which was that the deferred or progressive enhancements were generally given up and a reduction of about Rs. 21,000 or 4 per cent. on Mr. Morris's *jama* was granted. Thenceforward, assisted by a return of good seasons, the increased security for life and property under our rule, the settlement appears to have worked smoothly enough.

The revision of the regular settlement, which had been sanctioned for a term of ten years from the date of the giving out of the original assessments, was undertaken by Captain Nisbet under the general supervision of Mr. Prinsep, the Settlement Commissioner, in 1864 and completed in 1868. Revision of settle-
ment, 1866-68.

Captain Nisbet thus describes the state of affairs at the beginning of his settlement :—

" I soon found that though after revised assessment the demand for land revenue was far from being excessive, and there was no great distress, yet the rates fell very unevenly, and villages were either in one or the other extreme. Nearly one-quarter of the whole district is found to be heavily taxed, while 716 villages are lightly, and only 193 fairly, assessed. The general complaint I heard everywhere in my tours in the district was, not much of over-assessment but of inequality of rates in neighbouring villages. The very considerable increase in the irrigated area and small number of wells out of use betokens the prosperity of late years. Though at the present revision of settlement no great increase of revenue has been taken, every endeavour has been made to give relief in the way most needed, and avoid as far as possible great inequality of rates in villages of the same assessment circle. Some variation there must be always, in proportion as estates diverge from the centre of the *chakk*, and partake less of its characteristics as they approach the boundary of adjoining circles."

The Government share of the produce was calculated at one-sixth. The new rate *jama* included a rate on water, and land revenue, *first* by applying to the irrigated area a well rate, higher or lower according to the fertility of the circle to be assessed, calculated on the assumed average profit of the area watered by

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a well in that locality after deduction of all expenses, and then adding to this a moderate rate on the whole assessable area as "unirrigated." The well rate multiplied into the whole number of wells in use, care being taken to see that there was no want of yokes or able-bodied population, and the *bārāni* rate multiplied into the whole assessed area, gave the new rate *jama* of the assessment circle; and the standard thus obtained was then applied to each village area and the result showed how the general rate for the circle would affect that estate.

The total revenue of the district in 1866, including a small amount realized in lieu of *tirni*, was Rs. 5,28,554. The revenue assessed by Captain Nisbet on the cultivation was initial Rs. 5,45,575 and progressive Rs. 5,85,827, to which must be added the *jama* assessed on the *banjar* land, which was Rs. 11,475 initial and Rs. 23,234 progressive. Thus the grand total increase in the land revenue of the district was Rs. 28,496 or $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. initial, and Rs. 80,507 or $15\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. progressive. The progressive increase was generally taken in the tenth year of settlement. Full details of the assessment by *parganas* or circles with the *jamis* and their enhancement progressively, are given in the appendices to Captain Nisbet's report. The announcement of the new assessments was received everywhere with the greatest satisfaction. Even in tahsíl Háfizabad, where the actual increase was largest, not a single village declined to engage. There is no doubt whatever that the assessment everywhere was extremely moderate, and the absence of even a semblance of dissatisfaction would lead to the belief that it might have been higher.

The new assessment came into force in tahsíl Wazírabad and the *charkhari mahal* of Gujránwála from the kharif *kist* Sambat 1924, corresponding with December 1867; in the rest of the district from the rabi *kist* of Sambat 1925, corresponding with July 1868. The new assessments were sanctioned for a term of 20 years.

A leading feature of the settlement was the assessment of pasture. Mr. Morris's *tirni* assessment was merely nominal and came to only about Rs. 3,000. Captain Nisbet, after leaving a liberal margin for pasture, assessed the remaining culturable land in the Adjoining Bár of Gujránwála and Háfizabad at one anna per acre, rising progressively to 2 annas, and in the Háfizabad Bár at $\frac{3}{4}$ anna rising to $1\frac{1}{2}$ annas. The initial assessment on pasture was Rs. 11,475, rising progressively to Rs. 23,324.

The initial revenue assessed on the cultivation was Rs. 5,45,575 and progressive Rs. 5,85,827. The grand total increase in the land revenue of the district was Rs. 28,496 or $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. initial, and Rs. 80,507 or $15\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. progressive. In the interval between the regular and revised settlements cultivation had increased 15 per cent., irrigation 20 per cent.

The assessment was severely criticised at the time as being unduly lenient, and the Lieutenant-Governor accepted the proposal of the Financial Commissioner that the progressive

enhancements should be taken at once and the settlement sanctioned for only 10 years. Ultimately, however, these orders were reviewed, and it was directed that the term of settlement should stand for 20 years, as given out under Mr. Prinsep's instructions, and that the progressive enhancements should not be taken before the dates originally announced.

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By the people the new settlement was received with great satisfaction. The State demand had now been fixed at a moderate amount which left a margin for profit rents, and rent, as a payment in excess of the revenue, became now the rule, not the exception.

The new settlement, however, had a bad start. The years 1868-72 were years of short or unseasonable rainfall with bad harvests and scarcity of fodder. This caused considerable distress in the Bár villages of Gujranwála and Háfizabad. A special enquiry made at the time showed that an epidemic of murrain carried off 46,555 head of cattle, valued at 9 lakhs. The distress was aggravated by the orders originally issued to realise the progressive assessments at once. Many villages in Háfizabad and some in Gujranwála began to fall into arrears, and in 1872 the Deputy Commissioner reported that their conditions would have been deplorable had not orders been received from Government that the progressive *jamás* were not to be realised before the dates originally given out, and that the excess already realised was to be credited against the current year's demand. In 1873 a more prosperous era set in with abundant rains, copious harvest, and an ample supply of fodder. This lasted till 1876, and enabled the Gujranwála and Háfizabad villages to recover from their losses. 1876 and 1877 were very bad years owing to excessive rains in the former, and deficient rains in the latter: 1878 was a good year; 1879 and 1880 were both very bad owing to the failure of the winter rains, and the short harvests, combined with the drain of produce towards the seat of war, raised prices to a famine pitch, wheat selling at 10 sérs per rupee. 1882 ushered in a period of agricultural prosperity which lasted up to 1884, when another bad cycle set in which lasted up to 1888. This period was especially disastrous for Háfizabad, where, owing to the more uncertain rainfall, the fluctuations from prosperity to depression at least before the opening of the Chenáb Canal have been more marked and rapid. In 1886 a suspension of the kharif demand amounting to Rs. 4,333 was granted to 48 villages in Wazirabad, where the crops had been severely damaged by hail, but this was suddenly realised in May 1887, and the want of consideration shown caused some hardship.

In Kharif 1885 Rs. 6,284-8-0 was suspended in 47 villages in Háfizabad which had suffered most from the drought and fodder famine, and this was collected in kharif 1886 and kharif and Rabi 1887.

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The harvests from 1887 up to date, on the results of which the new assessments have been largely based, have been described in detail in the Assessment Reports.

Taking for each tahsil, the five years prior to the new assessment as an average cycle, the result of the analysis is as follows:—

<i>Kharif.</i>			
Gujránwála	2 average, 2 below average, 1 very bad.
Wazírabad	2 good, 3 bad.
Háfizabad	2 good, 1 fair, 2 very bad.

<i>Rabi.</i>			
Gujránwála	2 average, 2 excellent, 1 bad.
Wazírabad	1 bad, 2 excellent, 2 good.
Háfizabad	1 bad, 3 excellent, 1 very bad.

So that the kharif which is by far the most precarious crop is successful in two years out of five, while the rabi in Gujránwála and Wazírabad where the winter rains are more certain and copious is a good or an excellent crop in four years out of five, and in Háfizabad has been an excellent crop in three years out of five, bad or very bad in the remaining two years. The land revenue appears to have been realised with regularity if not always without difficulty, and resort was rarely made to measures more coercive than the ordinary warrants and an occasional distraint.

Second revised
settlement, 1889-94.

The history of the present settlement is given in detail in the final report recently submitted by the Settlement Officer, Mr. O'Dwyer, from which the foregoing account of the previous revenue history has mainly been taken. Re-assessment operations were gazetted on 3rd November 1888, and Mr. Maude joined the district as Settlement Officer on the same date, but the establishment was not completed till August 1889, and Mr. Maude left the district on deputation to the Secretariat in June. He was succeeded by Mr. O'Dwyer in September 1889, and that officer held charge of the settlement till its completion in June 1894.

It was decided in the first instance by the Financial Commissioner that remeasurements should be avoided as far as possible, and that the old maps should be corrected and brought up to date where they furnished a fairly accurate basis to work upon, remeasurements on the square system being confined to river-ain and canal-irrigated villages, villages in which there had been a large extension of cultivation, or in which there had been considerable internal changes by subdivision of holdings, partition of common lands, &c., or where the old maps were found to be materially incorrect. Subsequently it was found necessary to remeasure in many other cases in order that the field maps should come up to the requirements of the Survey Department, and in consequence revision of the old maps was

effected in only 387 estates with an area of 365,000 acres, while 846 estates with an area of 1,275,000 acres, or nearly 80 per cent. of the whole, were remeasured. Training of the patwáris in survey work was begun in November 1889, and in February 1890 measurements were started all over the district. The progress at first was slow; gradually, however, as the patwáris became accustomed to the work and were assisted in the heavier circles by temporary establishment (amíns), the outturn of work increased.

In Wazírabad, where only 45 per cent. was remeasured and nearly all the work was done by patwáris, the survey was completed in October 1891.

In Gujránwála the work was heavier, as 61 per cent. had to be remeasured, the circles larger, and the survey, of which two-thirds was done by the patwáris themselves, was completed in January 1892.

In Háfizabad, practically, all the area had to be remeasured, and as the average area per patwári was about 10,000 acres, the patwáris, who even after careful weeding out were by no means efficient, had to be supplemented by a large temporary establishment who measured over half the area. The survey was finished in April 1892. The whole field survey of the district, covering roughly about 900,000 fields and 1,650,000 acres, excluding the colonised area, has been completed in 2½ years.

The new records were prepared currently with the progress of the survey. Originally, no special revision of the settlement records was contemplated, but such revision was gazetted by Notification No. 342, dated 25th May 1891, and a "standing record" was accordingly prepared for each estate which contains the following documents:—

Revision
record of rights.

1. The preliminary proceedings.
2. Genealogical tree.
3. Detailed *jamábandi* with copies of—
 - (a) register showing yearly total of transfers,
 - (b) yearly register of areas,
 - (c) yearly revenue account,
 - (d) list of revenue assignments and pensions,
 - (e) statement of rights in wells,
 - (f) statement of rights in irrigation, if any.
4. Order of Collector determining the assessment and orders of higher authority, if any, modifying the same.
5. Order of the Collector distributing the assessment over holdings

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6. Statement of customs respecting rights and liabilities in the estate.
7. List of village cesses.
8. Field map.

An account of the contents of these documents and of the method in which they were prepared is given in paras. 62—93 of the Final Settlement Report.

Re-assessment.

The way having thus been cleared for re-assessment by a re-survey of the whole district, and the preparation of a new and correct record embodying all changes in proprietary right, tenancies, &c., up to date, the work of re-assessment was next taken up. The period of 20 years for which the first revised settlement was sanctioned expired in 1887-88, and in 1887 the Financial Commissioner (the late Colonel Wace) estimated the probable enhancement from re-assessment of the district as Rs. 80,000. The general principles laid down were: (1) that the Government demand for land revenue *should not exceed* the estimated value of half the net produce of the estate; (2) that revenue rates should be framed for each assessment circle representing approximately the estimated average annual half net produce of an acre of each class of land in the circle, the rents paid in money or in kind in an average year by ordinary tenants being taken as the principal guide to the estimate of the net produce, and full allowance being made for such expenses as by custom fall on the landowner. It was further laid down by the Lieutenant-Governor (Sir James Lyall) that, as the re-assessment of all the districts in the Central Punjab was being undertaken simultaneously and was to be carried out in a cheaper and speedier way than was the custom, the intention of Government was to facilitate work and disarm opposition by making the assessment in each case decidedly moderate, and in case of doubt to give the benefit of it to the *zamindárs* on the principle that moderation, combined with a fair regard to the interests of the State exchequer, would in the long run secure both greater general well-being and a greater Government revenue.

Thus the half assets estimate was prescribed as the *limit* rather than the *standard* of assessment, and caution in fixing the demand was inculcated throughout.

Standards of as-
sessment.

In giving effect to these instructions the following standards of assessment were kept in view:—

- (1) Produce rent half net assets.
- (2) Cash rent half net assets.
- (3) One-sixth gross produce.
- (4) Rates of last settlement as raised in proportion to the increase of prices.

And a brief explanation of each of these standards may appro-

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Revenue.Produce rent half
net assets.

The method by which the produce rent half assets were arrived at was as follows:—The agricultural statistics of each assessment circle for the last five years were scrutinised and tabulated so as to show how many acres of crops had been raised per 100 acres of cultivation, and what was the average area of each crop so raised. By means of the crop experiments carried out in the three years 1889, 1890 and 1891, aided by local enquiry and personal experience, average rates of yield were arrived at for each crop. Applying these rates of yield, the outturn of each crop on 100 acres of cultivation was arrived at. The average prices of the leading staples, as shown in the *Government Gazette*, in the grain-dealers' books, &c., were then ascertained, and an estimate formed on this basis of the prices which might safely be assumed for the calculation of the value of the produce. Thus the selling price of wheat was estimated at 26 sérs per rupee, of raw cotton at 15 sérs, of *gur* at 12 sérs, and compared with last settlement it was found that prices had risen 27 per cent. all round. Having ascertained the above, it was only necessary to apply the scale of prices fixed upon to the outturn of each crop to determine the gross money value of the produce on an average holding of 100 acres in each circle. The gross outturn having been determined, the share which the landlord received was deduced according to the average of the kind rent rates in the tract—usually two-fifths or one-third in Wazírabad, one-third or one-fourth in Gujránwála, one-fourth in Háfizabad—and, after deductions for fodder and village menials, half of the landlord's share—32 per cent. in Wazírabad, 26 in Gujránwála, 24·5 in Háfizabad—converted into cash in the manner explained above, represented the produce rent half net assets which was one of the standards or rather the limit of the Government demand.

The produce rent estimate, however, being based on a series of hypotheses (*vulgice* guesses) as to average harvests, average outturn, average holdings, average prices, is necessarily open to a large margin of error. In this district a more reliable method of determining the letting value and profits of land, and of deducing from them the half assets, is furnished by the cash rents which prevail on about 250,000 acres or over 30 per cent. of the entire cultivation. These rents have been described in a previous chapter. They vary from Rs. 20 per acre in the highly cultivated, irrigated and manured lands around the towns of Gujránwála, Wazírabad and Rámnagar, to Re. 1 per acre in the most sterile parts of the Bár, and are, as a rule, competitive and fully and punctually realised. Throughout the Wazírabad tahsíl, where owners are numerous, holdings comparatively small, markets close, communications favourable, and the demand for land keen, it was found that the rents were fully competitive, and in the Charkhari or most highly developed circle were often rack rents.

Cash rent half
net assets.

Conditions in the Gujránwála, Charkhari and Bángar circles were similar with the following differences:

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assets.

larger, tenants fewer, and the pressure of population less, rents were found to be fairly competitive but rarely rack rents.

In all the above circles, therefore, the cash rent half assets offered the most reliable basis for re-assessment. On the other hand, in the Adjoining Bār circle of Gujrānwāla and all the Hāfizabad tahsil, it was found that the largeness of the proprietary holdings, great area of available land, comparative scarcity of any tenants, except village menials who were allowed to hold at privileged rates, the want of good communications and markets, the backward and unenlightened condition of the owners who had in many places only recently taken to agriculture and had not yet fully realised the full extent to which the profits of land had been enhanced by high prices and more secure returns—all these causes combined to render cash rents low, stationary and non-competitive. Accordingly in this tract the estimate based on cash rents was used rather as a corrective to the kind rent estimates than as an independent standard of assessment. The average cash rents for each class of soil in each circle were thus worked out. The total area under such rents, and the total rent paid, were ascertained from the entries as regards tenancy holdings as attested on the spot by landlord and tenant during the survey. A large proportion of the holdings, however, included different kinds of soil—*chāhi*, *bārāni*, &c., held at a fixed rent with nothing to indicate how much was payable on account of each.

The totals for the circle thus showed the entire cash rents paid on a gross area, including *chāhi*, *bārāni*, *nahri* and *sailāba* lands. The *chāhi* area was, however, far in excess of all the others combined. The average cash rents for *bārāni*, *sailāba* and *nahri* lands were, therefore, ascertained from the figures for unmixed soils in a number of villages in each circle, and, the area and rental of these lands being eliminated from the circle total, the balance represented the area and rental of the *chāhi* land from which the average *chāhi* rent was then deduced. Thus, the figures for cash rents not only supplied a basis for the calculation of the half net assets for the circle as a whole and of each individual estate, as separate averages were struck for each estate, but also showed the average letting value of an acre of average land of each class in the circle.

Half net assets
standard.

Taking one-half of the net value of kind and cash rents in each circle to represent the half net assets, the kind and cash rent half assets acreage rates were arrived at. There was naturally a difference greater or less between the two estimates, and the next question was how to combine them so as to get a reliable set of half assets rates. In Gujrānwāla, where the difference between the two estimates was small, the half assets acreage rates were obtained by striking a mean between them, and the result was accepted by the Financial Commissioner. In Wazirabad the difference though larger was not considerable, and the Financial Commissioner accepted a half assets estimate

based on the application to the whole cultivated area of the kind, mixed (*chikota*), and pure cash rents in the proportion in which they were found to exist in the area held by tenants. In Háfizabad the produce half assets, owing to the lowness of cash rents already explained, worked out 67·5 per cent. in excess of the cash rent half assets, and it was found impossible to so combine them as to derive any single reliable estimate from the two ; but the revenue rates finally imposed were about midway between them.

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Half net assets standard.

Another standard, which, though useful for comparison, was of little intrinsic value, was obtained by taking the value of one-sixth of the gross produce. This, though difficult to justify on theoretic grounds, was the traditional limit of the State demand in the settlements carried out between 1860 and 1870 under Mr. Prinsep's direction. It would work out lower than the produce rent half assets where the landlord's share was high, say one-half as in Amritsar and Siálkot, but in a district like this, where the landlord's share is usually one-third or one-fourth and half of his net share comes to only 13·25 per cent. or between one-seventh and one-eighth, it exceeds the half net assets standard considerably. This standard was, therefore, of little practical value for re-assessment.

One-sixth gross produce.

A more valuable standard was supplied by the application to the present area of the rates of last settlement with an addition to represent the subsequent increase in prices. In the case of Gujranwála and Wazirabad it was accepted that for purposes of assessment the increase in prices of produce arrived at by comparing the prices now assumed with those prevailing before last settlement might be estimated at 27 per cent. Later on the principle was laid down by Government that—

Rates of last settlement increased in proportion to the rise in prices.

“The comparison should be between the prices which actually ruled during the first few years of the expiring settlement and the prices which, so far as can be judged, seem likely to prevail during the term of the new settlement.”

And, applying this consideration in the case of Háfizabad, the Financial Commissioner and Lieutenant-Governor came to the conclusion that for assessment purposes there had been no increase of prices worth speaking of. For Háfizabad, therefore, two estimates were worked out, *viz.*, rates of last settlement as if there had been no rise in prices, and the same rates increased by 27 per cent. for rise in prices as assumed in the other two tahsils.

Before discussing the manner in which the above theoretical standards were applied in each circle, and the actual results derived from them, the assessment of pasture land and the treatment of canal cultivation may be conveniently referred to. Captain Nisbet's assessment of the *waste* has been already described.

Assessment of pasture land.

At the present settlement the pasture land in the Chenáb circles benefitted by river action has been assessed as a rule at

Not only were these rates paid by the tenant, but the landlord while retaining his customary share of the produce—one-third in Wazírabad, one-fourth usually in Háfizabad—threw on the shoulders of the tenant the burthen of the owner's rate as well. This had originally been fixed at Re. 1 per acre, but was reduced to half that rate or 8 annas per acre for the first 10 years. In practice, therefore, the tenant paid the water-rates *plus* the 8 annas per acre intended to catch the extra profits of the landlord.

Looking to these facts and bearing in mind that the value of the landlord's net share on *nahri* lands was equal to, if it did not exceed, the value of his share on *cháhi*, and that he had to pay no canal dues of any description, it appeared absurd to assess such land as if it were unirrigated. It was, therefore, proposed that the owner's-rate and water-rate should be amalgamated into a single rate payable by the occupier, and that *nahri* land should be assessed on its merits, *i. e.*, with reference to the ordinary half assets standard, allowance being of course made for the deductions for owner's and occupier's rate. These and other proposals for the assessment of new land broken up with canal irrigation during settlement in the Háfizabad tahsíl were accepted with some modifications and the decision finally arrived at was on the following lines:—

1. That *nahri* land should be assessed not at dry rates, but like other land with reference to the half assets standard, existing *nahri* land to pay the same rate as *cháhi*.
2. That the increase of land revenue due to the assessment of *nahri* land at a wet instead of a dry rate, *i. e.*, the difference between the two, called the *nahri parta*, should be separately shown and a credit for this amount given to the Canal Department.
3. That this wet assessment on the *nahri* area of 1892-93 was to be considered a fixed one.
4. That future extensions of cultivation due to canal irrigation should be assessed during Settlement at the dry (*báráni*) rate of the circle, the Canal Department to receive a credit for such extra assessment after account had been taken of the probable normal increase in cultivation in these villages in the absence of the canal, which was estimated at 3,000 acres.
5. That the water-rate and owner's rate should be amalgamated into a single rate to be paid by the occupier.

The above orders were given effect to in the assessment of the old Háfizabad tahsíl, and of the total fixed assessment a sum of Rs. 20,198 has been shown as *nahri parta* for which the Canal Department receives an indirect credit.

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Results of assessment for the whole district.

The results of the application of the standards of assessment above described to each tahsíl and the whole district, the assessment proposed by the Settlement Officer and Financial Commissioner, the amount sanctioned by Government and as actually given out by the Settlement Officer, the incidence per acre of the new and old assessments and the extent of the enhancement are shown in the following table:—

TAHSIL.	Cultivated area.	Demand before re-assessment.	Incidence.	Estimates for re-assessment.			Old rates.	Old rates plus 27 per cent.	Assessment proposed by			Assessment given out.	Rate per acre.	Increase.	
				Cash rents.	Kind rents.	One-sixth produce.			Settlement Officer.	Financial Commissioner.	Punjab Government.			Ruppes.	Per cent.
Gujranwála ...	298,115	2,63,946	0 14 2	3,50,500	3,71,000	4,53,500	..	3,06,856	3,36,802	3,31,500	3,24,000	3,25,612	1 1 8	64,866	24
Wazirabad ...	161,089	1,86,100	1 2 2	2,74,000	3,07,000	3,23,000	..	2,50,000	2,25,100	2,31,157	2,31,157	2,32,638	1 7 1	46,538	25
Hafizabad ...	340,801	1,95,865	0 9 3	2,25,000	3,51,000	5,19,000	2,59,000	3,26,000	3,27,911	3,27,911	3,13,411	3,21,976	0 15 0	1,26,111	65
Total ...	800,015	6,46,911	0 12 10	8,49,500	10,59,000	12,95,500	..	9,72,856	8,80,613	8,90,568	8,68,668	8,83,226	1 1 8	2,37,315	37

From the above figures it will be seen that the final assessment, including Rs. 1,745 for progressive assessment in tahsíl Gujránwála and Rs. 4,147 for protective well leases in all three tahsils, gives an enhancement of Rs. 2,37,315 on the demand of the year prior to re-assessment, and of Rs. 2,84,897 or 48 per cent. on the demand of the first year of the expiring settlement, Rs. 5,98,329. The new assessment is 4 per cent. above the cash rent half assets, 17 per cent. below the produce rent half assets. It amounts to about 68 per cent. of the one-sixth gross produce estimate which is far too high a standard in this district where the owner's net share is only 13·25 per cent. or between one-seventh and one-eighth, while it is 9 per cent. below the estimate obtained by applying to the present areas the rates of last settlement and adding 27 per cent. for increase in prices of produce. As the original estimate of the enhancement expected was only Rs. 80,000 the results of the settlement from a revenue point of view have been decidedly satisfactory. The immediate increase in *khálsa* revenue is Rs. 1,87,804, viz. :—

	Rs.
Gujránwála	40,410
Wazírabad	42,078
Háfizabad	1,05,316
Total	<u>1,87,804</u>

At last settlement two revenue instalments were fixed for the kharif and two for the rabi payable on the following dates :—

Kharif	15th December, 15th February.
Rabi	15th June, 15th July.

And it was left to each village to decide whether it should pay equally in each harvest as in the proportion of two-fifths in the kharif, three-fifths in the rabi. The two rabi instalments have now been amalgamated, and the date of payment is :—

Gujránwála	25th June.
Wazírabad	1st July.
Háfizabad	1st July.

For the kharif two instalments have been retained as before, as the cane and cotton with which the land revenue is generally paid are not ready for market till January or February.

The most popular division was either equal instalments or two-fifths in the kharif, three-fifths in the rabi. If regard be had to the relative importance of the crops, a more suitable division would be kharif one-third, rabi two-thirds, especially in the river circles, but the people were averse to any change, and, in a matter of this kind, they are best judges of their own interests.

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Term of settlement.

In Gujránwála and Wazírabad the settlement has been sanctioned provisionally by the Local Government for a term of 20 years from Kharíf 1892 and will expire with Rabi 1912; in Háfzabad, for reasons already given, the term of assessment will run for ten years from Rabi 1894.

Chenáb Canal colony.

The following note on the history of the Chenáb Canal colony in this district which has been left out of account in the recent settlement and its development up to date has been kindly supplied by Lieutenant F. P. Young, the Officer in charge of the colonization operations:—

I. Situation and size of the colony.

The Chenáb Canal colony in its present stage of development is watered exclusively by the Rakh and Mián Ali Branches of the canal. It commences in the Khángah Dográn tahsil of the Gujránwála district about 40 miles from the headworks of the canal, and stretches in a south-west direction through the Chiniot and into the Jhang tahsil of the Jhang district.

The colony is bounded on the Gujránwála side by the large estates of Hinduána, Kot Nakka, Sukheke, Khángah Dográn, Gajána and Mananwála—a few smaller villages being sandwiched in between these—and is in the Gujránwála district a compact quadrilateral with irregular sides measuring about 20 miles by 17. It comprises 106 separate estates: and the total area is 338 square miles or 213,188 acres.

II. Preliminary survey.

The revenue survey of the Government waste lands commanded by the Rakh and Mián Ali Branches of the canal commenced in October 1890.

A square of 200 *karms* with an area of 27·7 acres had been decided upon as the unit for purposes of allotment, and these squares were laid out on the ground and demarcated by means of masonry blocks at the four corners, village boundaries being indicated by similar blocks with a convex surface. Maps of each estate showing the squares, existing habitations, wells, roads, drainages, and projected water-courses were prepared on a scale of 40 *karms* to the inch, and 100 copies of each on a scale of 160 *karms* to the inch were subsequently printed.

III. Conditions prevailing before the commencement of colonisation operation.

The actual business of colonisation commenced in February 1892. Previous to that there existed a small colony of Mazhbi settlers, pensioners from the 23rd, 32nd, and 34th Pioneers who were introduced during 1890 and 1891: and a few grants of crown waste had been made on special and favourable terms to certain individuals, mostly deserving officers of the native army. The Mazhbis did a certain amount of cultivation with the aid of the originally constructed inundation canal, but the other grantees mainly contented themselves with letting their land for grazing purposes; and until the kharíf of 1892, when a permanent supply in the canal had been assured by the construction of the headworks at Khánke, the whole of the area which is now comprised in the Chenáb Canal colony was practically productive of nothing but grass for the sustenance of wandering herds of cattle, and a certain amount of firewood. The development of cultivation since then has been extraordinarily rapid, and the exports of cotton and wheat from the colony have already attained to such a figure as to materially affect the markets of the Punjab.

(a) Mazhbís.

(b) Nomads of the Bár.

Situated in the heart of the Government waste there existed a few habitations, the location of some of which shifted from time to time, where small communities of cattle graziers semi-nomadic in their habits, had lived for many years. In some cases, wells had been sunk and small areas attached thereto had been leased for cultivation. It was the first business of the Colonisation Officer to settle these people, a task which presented considerable difficulties, as they had no faith in the permanency of the canal and little inclination to abandon their old vagrant habits and settle down to the business of serious cultivation, whilst they regarded the introduction of settlers from other parts of the country with extreme jealousy. They were, however, eventually induced to take land on the terms applicable to other peasant settlers, and already give promise of developing into industrious agriculturists. The principal tribes of these people in the Gujránwála district are the Wághás of Karkan (now located in mauza

168), the Bárns and Mutmals of Moman and Choránwála (mauzás 29 and 30), the Wasirs of Pakka Dalla, Malíánwáli, and Kuchánwáli (mauzás 288, 138 and 172), the Kharals of Borala (mauza 182) and the Mujáwars of Shahkot (mauza 88).

In March 1891 the Punjab Government sold by auction some 10,000 acres of land situated in certain selected villages of the colony, all in the Gujranwála district. An average price of about Rs. 45 per acre was obtained.

The rest of the Government waste land commanded by the Rakh and Mián Ali Branches of the canal has been allotted to three classes of grantees, capitalists, yeomen, and peasants.

Grants to capitalists and yeomen were sanctioned by the Financial Commissioner on the recommendations of District or Departmental Officers:

The former could apply for any number of squares from six to twenty, and had to pay as *nazarána* as many rupees per acre as there were integral squares in the grant, subject to a minimum of Rs. 10 per acre. The yeoman grant consisted of 4 or 5 squares, and a uniform rate of Rs. 6 per acre payable in two instalments was levied as *nazarána*.

The maximum and minimum grants to peasants were three squares and half a square respectively, and nothing but the cost of the square survey and of the construction of main village water-courses—a work which was undertaken on the settler's behalf by the Canal Department—has been recovered from these grantees. All alike are bound to bring one-third of the land allotted to them under cultivation within three years, and one-half within five years from date of entry. Subject to the fulfilment of this and certain other conditions, embodied in a statement drawn up under Act III of 1893, and attached to the registers which contain a record of all allotments made, the *nazarána* paying grantees will be entitled, on the expiration of five years from the dates of the commencement of their respective tenancies, to acquire by purchase the proprietary rights in their holdings, whilst the peasant settlers will be granted perpetual rights of occupancy heritable but not alienable by sale, gift or mortgage.

Revenue, rates and cesses are assessed from harvest to harvest on the area actually under cultivation, the assessing officer for the present colonised area being the Executive Engineer, 2nd Division, Chenáb Canal.

The rates chargeable at present, and for the next ten years at least, on each acre of cultivation are—

- (a) occupier's rate as in force on the canal ;
- (b) land revenue at 8 annas ;
- (c) cesses at annas 4 in the rupee on owner's rate and land revenue ;
- (d) *málikána* at annas 4 in the rupee on owner's rate and land revenue.

The owner's rate, which has been remitted for the first 10 years, amounts to Re. 1 per acre of irrigated cultivation. In the case of all grantees the whole of these charges was remitted for the first year, and half for the second year from the date of the commencement of each individual tenancy.

Up to date, in addition to the area sold by auction, 149,285 acres of Government waste land have been allotted for cultivation in the Gujranwála district. This has been distributed between the various classes of grantees as follows :—

Detail.	Number.	Area in acres.
Military grantees	13	1,604
Capitalists	31	14,838
Yeomen	46	6,402
Peasants	4,891	126,441
Total ...	4,981	149,285

In a few villages capitalists and yeomen are mixed, and in one or two peasant villages allotments have been made to yeomen.

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IV. Disposal of Government waste land.

(a) Classes of grantees.

(b) Conditions of grants.

V. Assessment.

VI. Land allotted how distributed.

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VII. Peasant Settlers.

The year 1891 was one of scant rainfall in the Bár, so that the land of promise presented but an uninviting appearance to the pioneers of the new settlement. Many of those who came in the first few months returned to their homes disheartened and disappointed at the barren and desolate appearance of the country, but the supply of would-be colonists from the congested districts of the Punjab proved inexhaustible, and from the moment when the first crop began to appear above ground the attitude of the people changed, and no more suasion was necessary to induce them to take up land, much of which had been previously rejected as unfit for cultivation.

Districts from which selected.

Colonists were selected in the first instance by Deputy Commissioners or Settlement Officers from the following districts:—Gujránwála, Siálkot, Amritsar, Jullundur, Hoshiárpur and Gurdáspur. The following table shows the number of peasants from each of these districts now located in the Gujránwála villages in the colony:—

District.	Number of grantees.	Area allotted.	REMARKS.
Gujránwála*	1,559	31,673	* Includes the old inhabitants of the Bár.
Siálkot	603	19,292	
Amritsar	270	8,636	† Excludes 8,938 acres allotted to 429 Mazbhis who come from various districts.
Jullundur	322	9,281	
Hoshiárpur	254	7,171	
Gurdáspur	1,454	41,450	
Total	4,462	† 117,503	

Castes are distributed as follows:—

Caste.	Area.
Hindu Jats	34,135
Mussalmán Jats	50,500
Kambohs	8,581
Aráins	20,193
Sainis	2,846
Dogars	168
Mujaivars	1,080
Mazbhis	8,938
Total	126,441

As already stated, one or more main water-courses, leading either from a branch of the canal or from a rájbaha or minor, were constructed in each village by the Canal Department before settlers were introduced.

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The settlers had to pay for this work as also for the square survey, and, to enable them to do so without crippling them at the outset, nominal advances of *taccávi*, sufficient to meet the cost, were made to all who wished it. In the Gujranwála district most of the money thus advanced has already been recovered, together with the usual interest, without any difficulty.

VIII. Initial charges how recovered.

The progress that has been made in cultivation is sufficiently apparent from the figures for the five successive harvests which have been reaped since colonization operations commenced :—

IX. Progress in cultivation.

HARVEST.	AREA UNDER CULTIVATION.		
	Irrigated.	Un-irrigated.	Total.
Kharif 1892	26,450	4,589	31,039
Rabi 1893	25,209	389	25,548
Kharif 1893	38,259	9,985	48,244
Rabi 1894	46,534	4,092	50,626
Kharif 1894	33,285	10,656	43,941

The total area now allotted (including land sold by auction) amounts to 156,471 acres.

The Canal Department only undertakes to irrigate the half of each man's holding in a year, so that the limit of irrigated cultivation in any one harvest has already been reached. It is true, that to some extent quantity has been substituted for quality, as is evinced by the fact that in the last kharif the revenue and water-rates on 15,684 acres, or over one-third of the cultivated area, were remitted by the assessing officer. This, however, is a defect which will be rapidly minimised as the supply of water becomes more constant, as the canal distributaries (which have, as is only natural in the case of new earthwork, been liable to continual breaches) become consolidated, and as the settlers find leisure to bring more labour to the business of cultivation.

It must not be imagined that all has been fair weather and plain sailing. The settlers have had innumerable difficulties to contend with, not the least of which has been the way in which the cattle thieves of the Gujranwála, Jhang and Montgomery Bár have preyed upon them. In illustration of this, I may note that enquiries, made by me through the patwári agency, elicited the fact that, from the date when the first settlers came to the Bár up to the end of November 1893, 688 head of cattle, valued in the aggregate at Rs. 16,000, had been lost by, or stolen from, the colonists in the new villages of the Khángth Dográn tahsil alone. It is satisfactory to be able to record that there is now very little cattle theft—or indeed crime of any sort—in the new colony. Many villages have, moreover, suffered from an inadequate supply of water, and in almost all there have been individuals whose allotments have proved unirrigable or bad as to soil. By dint of allowing free exchanges of allotted land with that (amounting to 20 per cent.) which has been reserved in every peasant village for grazing purposes, the difficulties of most of these last have been overcome; whilst trouble and money have not been spared to rectify mistakes originally made in constructing outlets or aligning water-courses, so that there are but few villages now which do not receive their fair share of water.

X. Initial difficulties.

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XI. Field Maps.

As was only to be expected, great difficulties have been experienced in making a crop assessment from harvest to harvest without the aid of field maps. To obviate this difficulty the large 28 acre squares have been subdivided into small squares with 40-*karm* sides, each measuring eight kanals 18 marlās. It has of course been a work of considerable difficulty to induce the zamindārs to construct permanent boundaries to the squares thus demarcated; but they have been quick to appreciate the advantage of having regular fields of an ascertained area, and sufficient progress has been made in the work to prove the practicability of the scheme, and to make it certain that we shall be able to accept these small squares as separate fields, and prepare detailed maps accordingly after the *rabi* harvest of 1894-95.

XII. General.

Administrative conveniences can hardly be said to have kept pace with the requirements of the colony. The roads are in shocking disrepair, and are rapidly becoming more and more so. The tahsil building at Khāngah Dogrān is most inadequate, and a new thāna at Shakkot (which by a slight alteration of the old boundary has been transferred from the Jhang to the Gujrānwāla district) is greatly wanted. A hospital at the last named place and village schools in one or two centres are also urgently required. The District Board of Gujrānwāla has recently applied to Government for a loan of Rs. 30,000 to be applied to the construction of these and other public works necessary for the development of the colony. The most crying want of all is a Railway down through the Doāb to open up the tract and afford means of exporting the surplus produce, much of which has hitherto, owing to the distance from central markets, defective communications and the want of carriage, had to lie unsold in the hands of the producers. The project for the construction of a line from Wazirabad to Lyallpur at a cost of 40 lakhs has now been sanctioned by the Secretary of State, and this work, which will contribute more than any other to the development and prosperity of the tract, has just been put in hand.

Further information regarding the colony can be gathered from the separate report on the whole scheme by the Colonization Officer.

Revenue free grants.

Some reference to revenue free grants has already been made in Chapter II, and a list of the leading jágirdārs showing the amount of their grants has been given in Chapter III. As the district was the home of Ranjit Singh and of many of his leading generals, ministers and courtiers, extensive jágir grants for personal or military service were freely distributed under the Sikh rule, while petty grants for religious institutions, *Thakūrdwāras*, *Dharamśālas*, Shrines, Mosques, or to their attendants, given by the ruler of the time or his local representative, were almost innumerable. Prior to annexation, probably over half of the district was held by revenue assignees, whose status was then far stronger than it is now, as it carried with it not only legal jurisdiction in the assigned area, but also the right to arrange for the cultivation and deal with the land practically as proprietor. The participation of many of the leading Sirdars in the second Sikh War led to the resumption of some of the largest grants at annexation.

The local jurisdiction of those whose jágirs were maintained was abolished, and they were treated, in theory at least, as mere assignees of land revenue whose rights were limited to the State demand, though the custom of realising in kind was, where it existed, not interfered with.

At the same time a general enquiry was made as to the origin of authority for, and conditions of, each máfi and jágir grant, large or small; and the orders of competent authority as to its future treatment were obtained. Grants for military and

personal service were as a rule resumed under the orders of the Supreme Government, while personal and family grants, and grants attached to institutions or held on conditions of village service, if based on a valid title and evidenced by possession, were as a rule upheld in full for the life of existing occupants, and in part to their posterity or to the institutions for one or more generations or in perpetuity.

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At the Revised Settlement of 1867-68, all grants were re-investigated, and under the general orders of the Supreme Government the system under which the *jágirdárs* realised in kind in 40 *jágír* villages was abolished, as the Viceroy laid down the principle that—

“Any permission to *jágirdárs* to make their collections in kind should be strictly conditional on the *bona fide* consent of the *zamindárs* of the *jágír* estates, and that any loss of revenue consequent on the revision of assessment must be borne without compensation by the *jágirdárs* just as it is constantly borne by the State.”

At the recent Settlement all revenue assignments were again re-investigated. Many life grants, subject to the maintenance of institutions as well as grants in perpetuity or during the pleasure of Government or term of Settlement in which the conditions had not been complied with were reported for orders, and resumption was effected under the orders of the Financial Commissioner and of Government in 88 cases assessed at Rs. 754 and in 10 cases involving an assessment of Rs. 2,142; while new grants were made in favour of institutions of public utility in 21 cases involving an assessment of Rs. 732-8-0.

Petty grants to individuals or institutions for village service were very numerous, though financially unimportant. These had originally been made by the village community, generally from the village common, and were entirely under the control of the proprietary body, but at the Regular Settlement the mistake was made of treating them as if they were grants held from Government and they were continued with the sanction of the Chief Commissioner for the term of Settlement.

At the Revised Settlement of 1867-68 such grants were maintained, on the recommendation of the Settlement Commissioner, Mr. Prinsep, “during the pleasure of Government conditional on village service and good behaviour and subject to revision at next Settlement,” so that the village community’s power of interference or disposal was practically abolished. When the question was re-opened at the recent Settlement, the Financial Commissioner ruled that the tenure was for the term of Settlement, and such cases were dealt with under para. 33 (e) of Revenue Circular 37.

As a general rule, all personal grants were resumed with effect from the new assessment, the *zamindárs* being given

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the option of excluding the land from assessment in the *Báchh*, while grants to village institutions such as *Khángans*, *Takiyas*, *Mosques*, *Dharamsalas*, &c., have, if the institution is properly maintained and the owners desire its continuance, been maintained, as before, "for the term of Settlement subject to good conduct and the service of the institution." The result is that 686 grants, covering 866 acres assessed at Rs. 848, have been resumed. The number, area and assessment of the grants upheld has been given at page 165. The zamindari *ináms* in the Háfizabad tahsil had originally been granted by Déwan Sawan Mal to encourage the semi-nomad population of the Bár to found villages and settle down to agriculture, in the form of a remission of part of the land revenue, generally one-half to one-fourth, as an *inám* in favour of the whole proprietary body. They had been maintained in a reduced form at the Regular Settlement. At the Revised Settlement of 1867-68 they were still further reduced and limited to 17 estates.

As the object of these grants is now attained without the need of any such artificial stimulus, all the *ináms*, the value of which was only Rs. 1,008 distributed among 453 shares, were resumed at the recent re-assessment, subject to the grant of zamindari *ináms* in deserving cases where hardship might result from their resumption.

When the enquiry into revenue-free grants, and the distribution of the village assessments was completed, a register was prepared for each tahsil, showing all assignments by villages arranged in alphabetical order. The register is divided into five parts showing grants—

- (1) In perpetuity.
- (2) For life or lives or till term of Settlement.
- (3) For maintenance of institutions.
- (4) Alá-lambardári *ináms*.
- (5) *Sufáid poshi* or zamindari *ináms*.

All details of area, revenue, &c., have been shown according to the new Settlement. An abstract of the detailed order passed at the general re-investigation has been given, and reference made to the original *máfi* and *jágir* registers conveying the primary sanction to the grant. The final result of the enquiry was to reduce the number of assignments from 5,341 in 1888-89 to 2,071 in 1893-94, the number of shareholders from 5,690 to 3,004, while, in spite of the reduction in the number and area of the grants, the amount of land revenue assigned has been enhanced by re-assessment from Rs. 1,29,905 to Rs. 1,73,934. This includes *zaidári ináms* Rs. 8,836, *alá-lambardári ináms*

Gujranwala District.]

Rs. 6,438, and commutation dues Rs. 6,711. The total extent of land revenue now assigned is shown below according to the recent re-assessment:—

Chapter V. B. Land and Land Revenue.

Revenue free grants.

TAHSÍL.	Total assessment.	Khalsa.	Assigned.	Percentage of total assigned.
Gujránwála	3,28,612	2,20,102	1,08,510	33
Wazírabad	2,32,638	2,15,971	16,667	7
Háfízábad and Khángah Dográn.	3,21,976	2,73,219	48,757	15
Total	8,83,226	7,09,292	1,73,934	19.5

In round numbers, one-fifth of the total assessment is assigned. The distribution of existing assignments, excluding zaildári and *alá-lambardári ináms* and commutation dues in which no land is assigned, in the year 1893-94, is shown below:—

CLASS.	No. of grantees.	Area.	Total assessment in Rs.
In perpetuity free of conditions ...	214	260,504	1,08,408
Do. subject to conditions ...	1,197	25,279	13,290
For life or lives	613	20,349	21,480
During pleasure of Government ...	27	99	164
Up to the term of settlement ...	20	244	274
Total	2,071	306,475	1,43,616

so that only about one-eighth of the revenue assigned is held for life during ; pleasure of Government or term of Settlement.

Table No. XXXV shows the Excise statistics for the last 5 years.

Excise.

There is a central distillery for the manufacture of the country spirits at Gujránwála, from which liquor is also sent to adjoining districts and scattered over the district : there are 49 shops for retail vend of country spirits and 3 for European liquors. Each shop is separately put up for auction annually. There are 67 shops for the retail vend of opium and drugs. The licences for these are sold in groups by parganas, 4 in

Chapter V. B.
Land and Land
Revenue.
Excise.

Gujránwála, 2 in Wazírabad, 5 in Háfizabad and Khángah Dográn. The total excise revenue in 1893-94 was Rs. 59,657, *viz.*, fermented liquors Rs. 50,114, opium and drugs Rs. 9,543. The excise revenue has more than doubled since 1881, but the increase is in great measure due to the substitution of duty-paying for illicit liquor. Illicit distillation was formerly very common in the Sikh villages, and the practice quickly revives if supervision is relaxed. In the Sikh times the consumption of liquor was very common among the Sikh and Hindu agriculturists, as it was cheap and easily manufactured. Our Excise policy, by enormously increasing the price of liquor and reducing the facilities for obtaining it, has reduced the consumption among this class where it has not driven them to illicit distillation. On the other hand, among the urban population, Hindu, Sikh and Muhammadan, the habit of drinking seems to be rapidly spreading with the progress of western ideas, and the loosening of the authority of the caste, and about half the Excise revenue is derived from the municipal towns, though they contain less than one-tenth of the population.

Stamps.

The gross and net income from the sale of stamps, judicial and non-judicial in the year 1893-94, is shown below :—

DETAIL.	Judicial.	Non-judicial.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Gross income	1,04,004	40,780	1,44,784
Net income	1,01,131	38,762	1,39,893

The district is one of the most litigious in the Province, and the income under this head has increased 40 per cent. since 1881-82. The increase in the activity of the Registration Department is even more rapid, the number of deeds registered having risen from 1,215 in 1881-82 to 4,243 in 1893-94, and the value of the property affected from Rs. 3,88,000 in the former to Rs. 11,94,381 in the latter year.

It appears therefore that litigation, transfer of property and registration of deeds increase with the facilities provided.

CHAPTER VI.

TOWNS AND MUNICIPALITIES.

At the census of 1891, all places possessing more than 5,000 inhabitants, all municipalities, and all head-quarters of district and military posts were classed as towns. Under this rule the following places were returned as the towns of the Gujranwála district. All six are municipalities of the 2nd class constituted under Act XX of 1891. The members are everywhere partly elected and partly nominated, save at Kila Didár Singh, where all are nominated.

Chapter VI.
Towns and
Municipalities.
General statistics
of towns.

Tahsil.	Town.	Persons.
Gujranwála	Gujranwála	25,892
	Eminabad	5,841
	Kila Didár Singh... ..	2,843
Wazirabad	Wazirabad	15,786
	Rámnagar... ..	6,592
	Akálgarh	4,262

The distribution by religion of the population of these towns, and the number of houses in each, are shown in Table No. XLIII, while further particulars will be found in the Census Report in Tables Nos. III and IV. The remainder of this Chapter consists of a detailed description of each of these and other towns, with a brief notice of its history, the increase and decrease of its population, its commerce, manufactures, Municipal Government, institutions and public buildings; and statistics of births and deaths, trade and manufactures, wherever figures are available.

The town of Gujranwála lies in north latitude $32^{\circ} 9' 30''$, longitude $74^{\circ} 14'$ east, and contains a population of 25,892 souls. It is situated on a slightly elevated plain with but little diversity of level. The neighbouring country for a long distance is fairly well wooded, and several fruit and flower gardens surround the town. The town is completely surrounded by a wall with seven gates, and four other gates which are closed for

Gujranwála town.

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Towns and
Municipalities.
Gujránwála town.

passing of goods liable to octroi. To the north, less than a quarter of a mile from the town, lie the civil lines and public offices, while about a mile south of the city is the encamping ground and supply depôt for troops. To the north and east of the town lie the post office, the dâk bungalow, and the railway station close to the town. The town is traversed by two main streets running respectively from east to west and from north to south. The streets are, as a rule, well metalled, though many of them are narrow and crooked, as usually is the case in Punjab cities. A sufficient staff of *bhishtîs* and sweepers, with proper supervising agency, is permanently employed for the purpose of sanitation. The principal buildings of architectural interest are the *samâdh* of Mahân Singh, father of Ranjît Singh, within the city walls, and a *bâradari* in Mahân Singh's garden, which is now used for public meetings. Close by is a lofty cupola, covering a portion of the ashes of the great ruler himself. Properly speaking, the town of Gujránwála traces its origin to a tribe called Gujars. These were nomads or cattle-grazers like some of the present tribes in the Bâr. They were expelled 18 generations ago by Sânsi Jats, immigrants from Amritsar, who founded 11 villages in this vicinity. The founder of Gujránwála was one Khan, who gave it the name of Khanpur, but the old name survived the change of owners and became stereotyped. The place was of little importance during Mughal rule. It is never mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari*, but it grew in importance with the rising fortunes of the Sukarchakia family. When Ranjît Singh rose to power it changed with his fortune from a village into a city. But little is known of its early history except that the town is of modern growth, and owes its importance entirely to the father and grandfather of Mahârâja Ranjît Singh, whose capital it was during the early period of Sikh power. Ranjît Singh himself was born at Gujránwála and made it his head-quarters during the years which preceded the establishment of his supremacy and his occupation of Lahore in A. D. 1799. The Sânsi Jats are still recognized as the original proprietors of the estate, but other tribes, Khatris, Arorâs, Brahmîns, gradually acquired wells around the city, and are now recognized as owners of the area in their actual possession—*mâlikân kabza*—without any right in the common land. The lands included in the civil station, comprising an area of 333 acres, were formed into a separate estate at the recent settlement; of this area 160 acres is owned by Government, including the jail, kacheri, &c. Several large dwellings, the architecture of which is essentially Sikh, substantial and somewhat cumbrous, occur in the main streets which are five in number and from 15 to 20 feet in width, though the remainder of the town is a confused system of narrow tortuous lanes ending for the most part in *culs de sac*. The municipality of Gujránwála was first constituted in 1862-63, and is of the 2nd class. The Committee consists of the Deputy Commissioner, as President, the Civil Surgeon and the Head Master of the Municipal Board

School as *ex-officio* members and 15 non-official members, of whom 3 are nominated by Government and 12 are elected. Table No. XLV shows the income of the municipality for the last five years. It is chiefly derived from octroi, levied at different rates, on the value of all articles and goods liable to octroi under the rules sanctioned by the Local Government. There is a considerable income from street sweepings, averaging Rs. 500 per annum. The total municipal income in 1893-94 was Rs. 96,170, of which Rs. 76,416 was octroi and Rs. 7,874 from sweepings. The expenditure was Rs. 97,364. The Government has lately taken objection to the taxation of food-grains as excessive and has insisted on the refund system being more extensively worked, and the Committee is endeavouring to arrange for the construction of a bonded warehouse near the railway station to protect through trade. Gujranwala is the chief commercial depôt in the district, collecting food-grains, rice, *gur*, from the surrounding villages. In fact, it is the great entrepôt by which the surplus produce of the district is exported to other districts or the seaboard, and through which the wants of the district are supplied by import in seasons of scarcity. It is also the chief market for brass and copper vessels, which are exported to distant districts to a considerable extent. There are several well-to-do native bankers. There are also a good many potters who make fine earthen vessels such as cups, glasses, &c. *Lungis*, *dotahis*, *khes*, and Ludhiána cloth are manufactured by the native weavers. *Phulkiris* and *chops* and *bághs* are the best specimens of needle-work by the native Hindu women of the Bhábra caste. An interesting note on these by Mr. Steel will be found in the "Selections from Punjab Government Records," No. 22 of 1881-82, pages 64 to 67.

The principal institutions of the town are the Babbage dispensary, a fine building, the municipal hall, the police lines, the District and Mission Schools, and the District Jail. There is also a library and reading-room named after Colonel Harington in the *báradari* in Mahán Singh's garden. A museum is attached to this library. The remaining public buildings and offices are the Deputy Commissioner's court and District offices, the Treasury building, Local Funds office, the Sessions house, the Police office, the railway station, and the post office. To the north and west of the town, there are two old tanks and an old sarái of large size opposite the Láhori gate. The tahsil building is between the sarái and the dák bungalow. There is also a church and cemetery close to the railway station. Within the city, there are two old established schools, *viz.*, the English Middle School, managed by the Municipal Committee, and the American Mission School which teaches up to the Entrance Standard. The Khálsa School, which teaches up to the Entrance, and the Islámiya School, Primary and Middle Departments, have recently been started.

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Towns and Municipalities.

Gujránwála town.

There is also a Zenána School maintained by the American Mission, and five Municipal Female Schools, *viz.*, three for Hindús and two for Muhammadans, which receive a monthly grant-in-aid.

A great deal has been done of recent years to improve the very defective sanitation of the town by carrying out an intra-mural and extra-mural drainage scheme. This project, which up to date has cost nearly a lakh, has been executed by the Public Works Department, the funds being provided by the municipality. A large well has been constructed on a commanding site in the centre of the city from which water is pumped into two large flushing tanks; from this it is distributed by means of pipes so as to flush all the main thoroughfares and most of the bye-streets and lanes on the east side of the city, the drains of which have been properly levelled and re-constructed, where necessary, so as to fit in with the scheme. By the flushing from the central tanks, the sewage matter from these drains is carried on into a large circular masonry drain running round the city on the outside, and then by a similar but large drain into two precipitation tanks about a mile to the south of the city near the Sheikhpura road. From these tanks the liquid sewage can be pumped up by *jhallárs* and used to irrigate the adjoining fields, while the solid matter is removed once or twice weekly and stored to be sold to agriculturists or brick-burners. The scheme is an excellent one in theory, but many defects have come to light in its execution which are gradually being remedied. It has been found difficult to work the central well by bullocks and the Municipal Committee is now considering a suggestion for replacing them by a steam engine. About one-third of the city on the west side has not been included in the present scheme, and the sanitary condition of the town will not be quite satisfactory till the drainage

system has been extended to this. The population as ascertained at the enumeration of 1868, 1875, 1881 and 1891 is shown in the margin. It is difficult to ascer-

Limits of enumeration.	Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town... ..	1868	19,371	10,873	8,498
	1891	22,884	12,345	10,539
Municipal limits... ..	1868	19,371	10,873	8,498
	1875	20,362
	1881	22,107	11,652	10,455
	1891	25,892	13,699	12,193

tain the precise limits within which the enumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken. The details in the margin give the population of suburbs. The figures for the population within municipal limits, according to the census of 1868, are taken from the published tables of the census of 1875, but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in

Town or suburb.	POPULATION.		
	1868.	1881.	1891.
Gujránwála town ...	19,371	22,107	25,892
Civil lines	777	893

many cases doubtful. The Deputy Commissioner in the district report on the census of 1881 attributes the increase of population to the opening of the railway. The great increase which has since taken place is due to the increasing importance of the town as a commercial centre. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are

YEAR.	BIRTH-RATES.			DEATH-RATES.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1881	44	23	21	44	39	51
1882	40	20	20	24	23	26
1883	43	24	19	26	26	26
1884	45	25	20	32	30	35
1885	43	22	21	30	29	31
1886	41	23	18	34	34	34
1887	40	21	19	28	27	29
1888	42	22	20	29	28	30
1889	42	21	20	32	29	34
1890	45	24	21	60	56	63
1891	30	16	14	25	25	24
Average ...	41	22	19	33	32	35

shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891. The annual birth and death-rates per *mille* of population since 1881 are given in the margin, the basis of calculation being in every case the figures of the most recent census. The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last

five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

Eminabad is a town of 5,841 inhabitants, and is situated to the south-east of Gujranwála at a distance of 8 miles on the Gujranwála and Amritsar road. It is one of the oldest towns in this part of the Punjab, and has had a long and interesting history which represents in miniature the history of the Punjab. It is said to have been originally founded by Salháhan (Salween), the famous Rájput Rája of Siálkot. The old town, known as Saidpur, was destroyed by Shere Shah, Afghán, in the 16th century, and a new city, Shergarh, the ruins of which are still visible, was founded about 1½ miles to the south-west of the present site. The Afghán garrison was expelled after a long siege by Emin Beg, one of Humáyún's Generals, who, under the order of Akbar, razed the old city and founded with the materials the existing one which has never been destroyed in the subsequent invasions. The Nanda Khatrís, from whom the well-known family of Dewáns that has given several successive Prime Ministers to the Kashmír-Jammu State is descended, settled here in Mughal times, but Saiyads, Kázis, Kakkazais, Virakhs, Khatrís, Arorás, Sadhs settled subsequently at different times as one race or another came to the front, and these now own part of the estate. In Mughal times Eminabad was the head-quarters of a *pargana* in the Lahore *suba*, bringing in a revenue of 9 lakhs. The Mughals were expelled about 1760 by Sardár Charat Singh. Under Ranjít Singh, the estate was held in *jágír* by Rája Dhyán Singh, one of the Jammu brothers, and to this may be traced the connection of the leading families in the town with the Jammu State. The chief feature of the town now is the "Rohri Sahib," a Sikh temple of considerable sanctity which is connected with some

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Eminabad town.

of the austerities of Guru Nának. He is supposed to have made his bed here on a couch of broken stones (*rohri*) and some of these are still exhibited to the faithful on the occasion of the religious fairs at the Waisákhī (April) and Dewáli (October) festivals. There are many fine gardens, 18 or 20 in number, and new ones are being added yearly. Dewáns Lachhman Das, late Prime Minister of Jammu-Kashmír, and Amar Náth, the present Governor of Jammu, own a considerable part of the town and estate, and have a *jágir* of about Rs. 462 per annum from the assessment. There are several very fine buildings erected by the Dewáns. A dispensary has been lately opened here, also a Telegraph office. Kámoke, 5 miles off, is the nearest railway station, but it is under consideration to bring the town nearer to the railway by erecting a flag station at Dhilianwáli, only 2 miles off. It is the birth place and family residence of the late Dewáns Jowála Sahai, Anant Rám, Prime Minister to the Maharája of Jammu, and of two *ex*-Prime Ministers Dewáns Gobind Sahai and Lachhman Dás. The town has several streets, a grain market, a police chauki, and a school house. There is a bungalow, constructed by the late Dewán Jowála Sahai in return for the grant of a garden rent free, for the use of the district officers. The Municipal Committee consists of 6 members, of whom 2 are nominated and 4 are elected. Its income for the last five years is shown in Table No. XLV, and is derived chiefly from octroi; in 1893-94 the total income was Rs. 3,507. A cattle fair, to which a horse fair has been added since 1893, is also held annually at the Waisákhī festival during April. The town possesses fine ruins of Muhammadan architecture belonging to the Imperial times. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1881 and 1891 is

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	6,711	3,661	3,050
1881	5,886	2,928	2,958
1891	5,841	2,883	2,958

shown in the margin. The Deputy Commissioner in the district report of the census of 1881 attributed the decrease of population to the opening of the railway. The constitution

of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891.

Kila Didár Singh.

Kila Didár Singh is a rural town of some importance owing to its situation 10 miles from Gujránwála on the Gujránwála and Háfizabad road, which is much used for wheeled traffic and is now being metalled. It was founded about the middle of last century by Didár Singh, from whom it takes its name, a Sindhu from the Amritsar Mánjha, who was a follower of Sardár Charat Singh, and got this land from the Varáichs of Deorhi, into whom he married. The Varáichs followed their property into the new settlement, and the estate is now held half and half by Sindhús and Varáichs. Its population is 2,843 souls.

A broad well metalled bazár runs from east to west. There is a sarái and rest-house, a thána and a Middle School. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1881 and 1891

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	2,204	1,160	1,044
1881	2,822	1,500	1,322
1891	2,843	1,493	1,345

is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891. There is a municipality, consisting of the Deputy Commissioner as official President and 5 members all nominated by Government. The municipal income in 1893-94 was Rs. 2,155. There is some trade in wool and hides. The trade is chiefly in the hands of Jains and Khojás.

Wazírabad is next in importance to Gujránwala, and lies 21 miles to the north-west of Gujránwala. It contains a population of 15,786 souls according to the census of 1891. It is situated on the right bank of the Chenáb river at a distance of 2 miles from the river, and is skirted on the north and west sides by a *nala* known as the Palkhu stream. The North-Western Railway and the Grand Trunk Road from Lahore to Pesháwar pass close to it on the west side. It is now connected with Siálkot by a branch railway opened on the 1st January 1884 and extended to Jammu in 1892. It is surrounded by a wall with four main gates and has a long open bazár well metalled throughout, and a fine broad bazár from east to west. The other streets, as a rule, though narrow, are well paved, and there is a regular conservancy establishment maintained for the sanitation of the town. The town is said to have been founded by Wazír Khan in the time of Shah Jahán, but the rise of the town to importance is even more recent than that of Gujránwala. It is first heard of in history as falling into the hands of Gurbakhsh Singh, Bhangi, a retainer of Charat Singh, at the time when the latter extended his power in the northern part of this district. Allusion has already been made to the family of Gurbakhsh Singh and the ultimate absorption of its estates by Ranjít Singh in 1809. During the rule of the Mahárája, Wazírabad, which was at first subsidiary to Sohdra, the old pargana, 5 miles off, became for a time the head-quarters of General Avitabile, under whose hands a completely new town grew up. As laid out by him, Wazírabad is a parallelogram in shape enclosed by an irregular brick wall. Within is a broad and straight bazár running from end to end, and crossed at right angles by minor streets, also straight and of good width; the whole being marked by an almost entire absence of the tortuous *culs de sac* so general in towns of purely native design. During the various struggles for supremacy various tribes came to the front and disappeared, and at annexation those in possession were recognized as owners

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Wazírabad.

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of the estate. The present proprietary body, about 450 in number, consist mainly of Chimás, Kázís who claim to be Kureshís, Aráfús, together with Khatrís, Brahmíns and Arorás. The houses are of brick, both kiln-burnt and sun-dried, the latter predominating. There are no buildings of peculiar size or interest, except the eastern or Siálkot gateway now converted into a tahsíl, and the Saman Burj, once the residence of Avitable, a picturesque building on the banks of the Palkhu, now occupied by Lieutenant-Colonel Rája Ata-ulla Khan, late British envoy at Kábul. Under British rule, Wazírabad was for a time the head-quarters of a district which included the present districts of Siálkot and Gujránwála, together with parts of Gurdáspur and Lahore. This district was broken up in 1852, Wazírabad lapsed to the position of head-quarters of a Sub-Collectorate. On the opening of the works for the Northern State Railway, the town, situated at one extremity of an important section of the railroad and in the immediate neighbourhood of the works connected with the Chenáb bridge (one of the most arduous undertakings of the enterprise), again became the site of a numerous European colony of Engineers and others employed upon the railway works. The cantonment for troops, which once existed 6 miles to the west of Wazírabad, was deserted on account of its unhealthiness and transferred to Siálkot in 1855, is quite obliterated, and cultivation is spreading over its site. The opening of the Punjab Northern State Railway and its extension to Siálkot have injured the commercial importance of Wazírabad by doing away with the local trade, owing to the facilities for through traffic; but the construction of the Wazírabad-Lyallpur Railway, which will eventually be carried on to Mooltan, will probably tend to revive its lost prosperity. The famous Alexandra bridge across the river Chenáb was formerly one of the longest in India, but was considerably contracted in 1892, the number of spans being reduced from 61 to 28. Soon afterwards an unprecedented flood in the Chenáb in August 1892 burst through the protective embankments and caused considerable loss of property in and around the town. The pile bridge over the Palkhu nala was carried away at the same time and has not since been renewed. The bridge-of-boats over the Chenáb has been abolished by order of the Government, and a ferry train runs at present in its place. But a boat-ferry plies here also for the convenience of passengers and light traffic. The municipality of Wazírabad was first constituted in 1866-67; it is now one of the 2nd class. The Committee consists of the Tahsildár as *ex-officio* member, and seven non-official members, of whom one is nominated by Government and six are elected. The municipal election system here has worked less satisfactorily than in any other town in the district, and has brought into prominence many feuds and jealousies. At the elections of 1894 things came to such a pass that Government withdrew the right of election for the time being and appointed nominated persons to the vacancies. The income, which comes chiefly from octroi, is shown in Table

No. XLV and is about Rs. 18,966. There is a considerable trade in timber, brought down by the river, which finds extensive sale, also in country-made and English cloth, *gur*, grain, &c. The timber is floated down the Chenáb from Akhnúr in the Jammu territory, and there are large central depôts here belonging to the Kashmír State and the Forest Department. There are also excellent workmen and artizans who make boxes, *dabbis*, shoes, caps of nicely coloured silk which generally attract strangers' eyes. They are sold in large quantity. An important fair is held at Dhaunkal in the immediate neighbourhood of Wazírabad. At this fair, which is primarily religious in its objects, a considerable amount of commercial business is also transacted. Ploughs manufactured in the Jammu territory are extensively sold. In other respects the trade of the town is not important. The smiths, too, of Wazírabad have a speciality for the manufacture of small articles in steel and iron, such as many-bladed knives, paper-cutters, &c., and close by within a mile of the town is the village of Nizámabad, celebrated in the Punjáb for the excellence and finish of its fire-arms and other warlike implements. There is a dispensary, a post office, and a *dák* bungalow close to the town on the west side, and a *thána* and encamping ground along the line of the Grand Trunk Road, and the railway line opposite the sarái building. There are also a civil rest-house and Forest bungalow and several bungalows occupied by the railway staff. Within the city there is a Scotch Mission School which teaches up to the Entrance Standard Examination. There is also a *thána* in the city for the accommodation of the Municipal Police, and close to it are tahsil offices, a Munsiff's court, a Sub-Registrar's office, and Honorary Magistrates' court.

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Municipalities.
Wazírabad.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868,

Limits of enumeration.	Year of census.	Persons	Males.	Females.
Whole town ...	1868	15,730	8,437	7,293
	1881	16,462	8,795	7,667
	1891	15,786	8,282	7,504
Municipal limits ...	1868	15,730
	1875	15,346
	1881	16,462	8,795	7,667
	1891	15,786	8,282	7,504

1875, 1881 and 1891 is shown in the margin. It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the enumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken. The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the census of 1875, but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. The population has decreased by nearly 700 since 1881, and is now nearly the same as in 1868. The decrease is attributable chiefly to the excess of deaths over births. The city, owing to its position in low ground near the river, is notoriously unhealthy, and the Palkhu nala, which, since the construction of the railway protection works, is now a stagnant pool nearly all the year round, is said to aggravate the defective sanitary arrangements

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by fouling the atmosphere and contaminating the water in the adjacent wells. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of houses occupied are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report

Year.	BIRTH RATES.			DEATH RATES.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1881	38	21	17	32	20	35
1882	31	17	14	18	18	17
1883	33	21	17	39	20	18
1884	40	22	18	18	17	19
1885	35	19	16	18	19	17
1886	33	18	15	20	19	21
1887	29	15	14	33	31	35
1888	32	18	14	28	29	23
1889	37	22	15	36	35	38
1890	40	21	19	34	29	40
1891	37	18	19	37	33	36

of 1891. The annual birth and death-rates per mille of population since 1881 are given in the margin, the basis of the calculation being in every case the most recent census. The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last five years

is shown in Table No. XLIV.

Rámúagar.

Rámúagar is a town with 6,592 inhabitants according to the census of 1891. It lies on the Siálot-Mooltan road to the west of Wazirabad, down the river at a distance of 22 miles. A good road goes from Wazirabad to Rámúagar *viâ* Saroke where there is a rest-house, but this is being dismantled, and the most convenient but not the most direct route now is by Khánke. The town has a Vernacular Middle School, dispensary, and police chauki. There is also an encamping ground with a sarái which, being badly situated and little used, was sold by auction a few years ago. There is a very picturesque and well-situated bungalow (*báradari*) with a fine garden attached near the river bank, about half a mile east of the town which is now used by officers on tour. This was originally built by Ranjít Singh and was a favourite resort of his in the hot weather. It lay on the old military road from Lahore to Pesháwar, and it was here that the Mahárája received the news of the defeat and death of Hari Singh by the Afgháns at Jamrud. The Municipal Committee consists of six members, of whom two are nominated and four elected. Its income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV, and is derived mainly from octroi. There is a ferry over the Chenáb river which is known by the name of the town, and the income from tolls amount to Rs. 1,231 a year, which shows that traffic is brisk. This town, which was originally called Rasúlnagar, was founded, about 160 years ago, by Núr Muhammad, the Chattah chieftain, of whom some account has been already given. Under this family, Rasúlnagar flourished and rapidly grew in importance. It was finally stormed in 1799 by Ranjít Singh after a gallant resistance made by Ghulám Muhammad, who then represented the family, and, passing into the hands of the Sikh ruler, received its new name of Rámúagar. Under British rule the population has considerably decreased. By the census of 1855 it amounted to

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Rám Nagar.

9,192, the decrease being over 2,000; in the interval that elapsed before the census of 1868. The enumerations of 1881 and 1891 showed a further gradual decrease. The town is declining not only in population but also in prosperity. The falling off of the river-borne trade and the diversion of the salt trade by the construction of the Sind-Ságar Railway have had a disastrous effect on it. There is some local trade in food-grains, *gur*, cloth, but there is a want of enterprise and capital, as those of the inhabitants who have one or the other have migrated to the larger commercial centres, such as Jhelum, Ráwalpindi and Sialkót, to better their fortunes. The construction of the Wazírabad-Lyallpur Railway, though it will bring the town into easier communication with the outer world, will probably deal a blow at the little trade that exists, as it will attract the trade to the railway station at Akálgarh, 5 miles off. The town enjoys a reputation for the manufacture of *kupás* or vessels of hide, used for the conveyance of *ghi*, oil and grain; but otherwise it is of no commercial importance. A considerable fair is held here on the Baisákhí in every year, at which the attendance has been estimated as amounting to 25,000 persons. Several fine buildings erected in the time of the Chattah supremacy are still to be seen. The population as ascertained at the

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	8598	4142	4456
1881	6830	3544	3286
1891	6592	3347	3245

enumerations of 1868, 1881, and 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details

of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891.

It was on the banks of the Chenáb in the vicinity of Rám Nagar that Lord Gough's army of the Punjab first came into collision with the Sikh Forces under Shere Singh in November 1848. The Sikhs were strongly entrenched on both sides of the river, prepared to dispute the passage with Lord Gough's army marching north from Lahore. Their position was attacked on the morning of the 22nd November by the cavalry division and three troops of Horse Artillery under General Cureton. The Sikhs fell back to the bank of the river hotly pursued by the cavalry and the guns. The latter misjudged the difficult nature of the ground. Some of the guns got stuck in the sandy *nalás* and fell into the hands of the Sikhs. A brilliant charge made by Colonel Havelock of the 14th Light Dragoons to bring the guns away was ineffectual, and the regiment had to retreat with the loss of its gallant commander. General Cureton was also killed in this charge and the total loss was 26 killed and 59 wounded. The officers who fell in this action are buried in the garden of the *báradari*. The attempt to cross at Rám Nagar having failed, half of the army

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under General Thackwell was detached to effect a passage up the river at Wazirabad and take the Sikhs on the north bank on the flank. This movement caused the Sikhs to fall back towards the Jhelum. Lord Gough crossed the Chenáb on 3rd December,—formed a junction with Thackwell and followed up the Sikhs who had taken up a strong position at Chillián-wála in the Gujrát district, where the bloody but indecisive battle was fought on 13th January 1849.

Sohdra.

Sohdra is an ancient town with 4,978 inhabitants, about five miles to the east of Wazirabad, and lies on the Chenáb river. It was founded by Ayáz, a favourite of Mahmúd of Ghazni, and takes its name from having once had 100 gates (*soudara*). After Ayáz's time it fell into decay, but was refounded under Shah Jahán by the Mughal Governor Nawáb Ali Mardán, who constructed a splendid garden, dug a canal from the river and called the place Ibrahíngarh after his son. The garden was called Naulakha from the amount said to have been spent on it. Traces of it are still to be seen. It was demolished about 12 years ago when the Wazirabad-Siálkot Railway was constructed, the materials being taken by Government for ballast and the land made over to the zamíndárs. Under Mughal rule Sohdra was a flourishing city and the head-quarters of a *pargánna* with a revenue of twelve lakhs. There are many ruins of Mughal architecture to be seen. On the decay of Mughal power Sohdra was captured by Sáhib Singh, Bhangi, of Gujrát. In 1790 Mahán Singh tried to wrest it from him by force and fraud but failed; vexation at his failure is supposed to have hastened his death.

Ranjit Singh was however more successful. Under him the town and adjoining tract of country was held in *jágir* by a Dewán family of Brahmíns from Gujrát. The *jágírs* were resumed at annexation and pensions given in lieu, some of which they still hold. The proprietary body consists chiefly of Chima Jats and Aráíns. There are many influential Khatrís of the Chopra *gôt* who are in the service of the British Government or of the Jammu State. There are also several respectable Kázi families, many of whom are in the Government service. The trading class is represented chiefly by Kakkazais—said to be Muhammadan Kaláls, who on their conversion gave up distilling for trade. These are very enterprising traders. They purchase country-made and imported cloth at Delhi, Bombay, &c., and retail it in Hindustán, Bengal and the Native States of Central India, somewhat after the same fashion as the Pathán hawkers. They have made much money in this way and some of them are now beginning to acquire land. Bricks are found in large numbers which attest the ancient magnitude of this town. It stands on a slightly elevated site and has a well paved bazár from north to south. There is a Middle School. There are two good gardens, the property of the Sodhra Dewáns. A ferry known by the name of this town is in charge of the Deputy Commissioner of

Siálkot. The municipality of Sohdra was abolished in 1886, but the town was declared a notified area in 1894 under Chapter XI of the Municipal Act; the management being vested in the Tahsildár and three of the leading residents subject to the control of the Deputy Commissioner. A small income is raised from octroi on a few of the more important articles of human use and

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	4,743	2,410	2,333
1881	4,464	2,202	2,262
1891	4,978	2,401	2,577

consumption and from the sale of street sweepings, and this is spent on sanitation and watch and ward. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1881 and 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution

of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891.

Akálgarh is a well built town having a population of 4,262. It is especially noted as being the native place of many famous Khatriis of the Chopra *gôt*, among whom were Dewán Sáwan Mall the most successful Sikh Governor, his son Dewán Múlráj, the author of the Sikh rebellion, and Dewán Rám Chand. It lies to the west of Wazírabad at a distance of 23 miles. It cannot boast of any commercial importance. It has several fine houses and gardens the property of the Dewáns. Its main streets are well paved, and there are many buildings of gigantic size. There is an Anglo-Vernacular Middle School, a thána and a rest-house for District officers. The Municipal Committee consists of six members, of whom two are nominated by Government and four are elected. Its income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV and is chiefly derived from octroi. This town was founded 140 years ago by Ali Muhammad, son of the Ghulám Muhammad, Chattah, who founded Rámnagar. It was originally called Alipur after the founder. On the defeat of the Chattáhs by Mahán Singh, the town was granted by him to Sardár Dal Singh, brother-in-law to Charrat Singh, under whom it was renamed Akálgarh. At first Dal Singh had great influence with Ranjít Singh, but they quarrelled and in 1800 Ranjít Singh, having imprisoned Dal Singh, marched against Akálgarh. The attack, however, failed, and was abandoned after a siege of three months; nor did Ranjít Singh gain possession of the town until Dal Singh's death which happened in 1804. Under Ranjít Singh the family of Sáwan Mal, who was Governor of Mooltan, rose to positions of great trust and emolument, from which they were rudely hurled after his son Mulráj raised the standard of rebellion at Mooltan, which led up to the conquest and annexation of the Punjab. At annexation the *jágír* and property of Dewán Mulráj and his brothers were confiscated, but the property amounting to several lakhs of rupees was subsequently released. At the first settlement the original

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Chatta owners having declined to engage for the assessment, those in possession got the ownership of the cultivated land in their occupancy, but in 1856 the Chattás sued for and got a decree for all the waste land, which is considerable. Though there is little income from trade, many of the Khatri families are very wealthy, still possessing the treasure accumulated in Sikh times. Many of them are now in the service of Government, including Dewán Hari Singh, Extra Assistant Commissioner, son of Dewán Mulráj. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1881 and 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table

Year of Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	5,038	2,698	2,345
1881	4,312	2,157	2,155
1891	4,262	2,151	2,111

No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891.

The construction of the Wazírabad-Lyallpur Railway, which will have a station here, will probably lead to a considerable influx of trade into the town.

Pindi Bhattián.

Pindi Bhattián is a town of some commercial importance in the extreme west of the Háfizabad tahsíl on the road from Lahore to Shahpur and Bannu, about 70 miles from Lahore and 57 from Gujránwála. Its population is 3,674. It lies near the Chenáb about seven miles from the limit of the Shahpur district. It has a good bazár running from east to west. The neighbouring villages receive their supplies from the town. There is a dispensary, a thána, a sarái with encamping ground and a Vernacular Middle School. The town derives its name from the same tribe that gave its name to the tract of Bhattiána. It is the head-quarters of the Bhatti clan, and is said to have been founded in Akbar's time by Jalál Bhatti from Bhatner in Rájputána. All the other Bhatti villages in the vicinity, over 80 in number, are offshoots from it. The descendants of Jalál held undisturbed possession for over six generations and were lords of a large tract of country extending as far south-east as Gajiána. At the end of last century Ranjít Singh, in his struggle against the Muhammadan tribes of the district, came into collision with them. They made a long and brave resistance. Ranjít Singh first captured Jalálpur, the second Bhatti stronghold, and in 1802 laid siege to Pindi. After some severe fighting the Bhatti chiefs were overcome and had to take refuge with the Syáls of Jhang. After many years Rahmat Khan, Bhatti, was taken into the Mahárája's service. In the first and second Sikh wars he and his tribesmen gave material assistance to the English, and helped to capture Guru Mahráj Singh, took part in the fighting at Rámnagar, Chilliánwála and Gujrát, and on annexation the family was reinstated not only in Pindi

Bhattián and Jalálpur, but in most of the other villages they had founded. In the mutiny Rahmat Khan and his relatives assisted in putting down the disturbance in Gugera and received rewards and *jágirs*. The town was formerly a municipality, but the Municipal Committee was abolished in 1890, the balance to its credit vesting in the District Board.

There is some trade in *ghi*, thread, grain and Afghán fruits, and the Mochís here make excellent native saddles and camel packs. There is a strong commercial and money-lending community of Arorás, one or two of whom are among the wealthiest men in the district. The trade has made considerable strides since the colonization of the adjoining Government waste has increased the amount of local production. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1863, 1881 and 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	4,281	2,256	2,025
1881	3,528	1,788	1,740
1891	3,674	1,918	1,756

houses are shown in table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881.

Háfizabad is a rural town with 3,076 inhabitants. The town is important as being the head-quarters of a Tahsildár and Munsiff and a non-official Sub-Registrar. It was founded by Háfiz, a favourite of the Emperor Akbar. He settled Khatris of the Kapúr and Chopra *gôts* from Lahore who obtained the proprietary right. The town was deserted in the Afghán invasions, the owners taking refuge in adjoining villages or founding separate estates which they still hold to the number of 9 or 10. The principal owners are now Kapúr Khatris. The population has increased rapidly since 1868, and since the extension of canal irrigation the town which taps a large part of the newly irrigated area has become very prosperous. There are over 200 people from here in Government service, whose income is computed to exceed Rs. 60,000 per annum. The construction of the Wazirabad-Lyallpur Railway, which will have a station here, will immensely increase the importance of the town, and already new buildings are springing up on all sides. An imperial telegraph office has lately been opened here. There is a narrow paved bazár running from north to south with a good slope for drainage. There is a sarái with encamping ground, a thána and Vernacular Middle School. There is a good rest-house attached to the sarái. The main channel of the Chenáb Canal runs east of Háfizabad at a distance of 2½ miles. The municipality here was abolished in 1884, but in November 1894 the town was constituted a "notified area" under Act XX of 1891, and a Committee, consisting of a Tahsildár and two of the leading inhabitants, was appointed to look after sanitation, &c. As in Sohdra,

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a few of the principal articles of human use and consumption have been made liable to octroi to raise an income sufficient to pay the cost of watch and ward and sanitation. Háfizabad is an

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	2,292	1,228	1,064
1881	2,453	1,299	1,154
1891	3,076	1,652	1,424

ancient town, being mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari*. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1881 and 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied

houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891.

Jalálpur.

Jalálpur is a rural town, 18 miles north-west of Háfizabad, having a population of 3,273. It has a sarái with encamping ground, a police chauki and a Primary School. There is a large wall running round it with rather a fine gateway; but this, which is *nazúl* property, is now in a ruinous state of disrepair, and a proposal has been made to dismantle it and sell the materials and site. It has a well paved bazar running from east to west. The town is not noted for anything except that the neighbouring villages derive their supplies from it. The municipality here has been abolished since 1884. The ruins of the old town lie some two miles to the west. It was formerly a place of more importance than at present. The present town was founded by Bhattís, from Pindi Bhattián, close to the ruins of the old city—Jalálpur Kohna—and named Kot Muhammadpur after the founder. When the Bhattís were expelled from here and Pindi Bhattián by the Sikhs in 1802, Aráins and Khatrís took and held possession. At annexation the good services of the Bhatti chiefs, already referred to, were so far recognized that they were told by Mr. Cocks, Assistant to the Resident, that they might regain possession if they could. They were resisted by the Khatrís, but after a few of the latter had been killed they gave way and the Bhattís recovered possession. Many of the Khatrís from here are in Government service. There is some trade in grain and cloth, and there is a colony of Khojás dealing in hides and bones which are sent to the seaboard for export to

Year of census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	2,583	1,568	1,015
1881	2,453	1,299	1,154
1891	3,373	2,098	1,275

Europe. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1881 and 1891 is shown in the margin. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses

are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891.

Sheikhupura.

The village of Sheikhupura was not classed as a town at the census of 1891, the population being below 5,000 and there being

no municipality. It is the head-quarters of a police thána and is situated in Khángah Dográn tahsíl, on the road from Lahore to Bannu, 22 miles from the former place. The population is now 2,432 and has increased by 25 per cent. since 1881. It is a town of some antiquity, and contains a ruined fort built by the Emperor Jahángír. Prince Dára Shikoh, grandson of Jahángír, from whom it derives its name, is said to have connected the town by a cut with the Aik naddi. There is said to have been an old Hindu city here, called Kanthurpur, and supposed to have been the capital of Rája Kanthur who lived at the time of the Mahábhárat, and there are extensive ruins of what must have been once a considerable city in the vicinity. Stone pillars of great size have been found which indicate a higher state of civilization than that at present. In the time of Ranjít Singh the town was for many years the residence of one of his queens, Ráni Ráj Kaur, better known as Ráni Nakayán, whose palace, a cumbrous brick erection, is the most conspicuous object in the locality. She held a *jágír* of $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs in this neighbourhood, and did much to develop cultivation in the Bár. At annexation, for a short time, Sheikhpura was the head-quarters of this district. Since the extension of the Chenáb Canal and the progress of colonisation in the Bár it has grown in importance, as it is on the main highway to Lahore; and the road, which has now been metalled between Lahore and Sheikhpura, is much used by colonists from Lahore and the districts south of the Rávi. Its principal attraction is that its neighbourhood abounds with deer and other games, which render it desirable quarters for a sportsman. It is to this fact, probably, that it owed the attentions of Jahángír and Dára Shikoh. It is now the residence of Rája Harbans Singh, adopted son of Rája Teja Singh, who holds a large *jágír* of about Rs. 80,000 in the neighbourhood and has criminal and civil jurisdiction in 160 villages comprised in the *jágír*. He resides in the old fort.

There is a hunting lodge, a large masonry tank covering 13 acres, and a tower with 99 steps for spying game, at a place called Rakh Haran Munára, $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Sheikhpura, on the road to Háfizabad. These date from the days of the Mughals and are visible evidences of the magnitude and solidity of their work. A canal was commenced to bring water from the old Aik nala to this tank but by Dewán Sáwan Mal (and not by Sikhs). Owing to the death of Sáwan Mal this canal was never completed, but there are very distinct traces of it, and many greybeards are still alive who worked at it. It is shown in Major Thullier's Map of 1859. There was also formerly a small canal from the Deg river, entering this district at Kayámpur and terminating at Bhikki. This has been allowed to silt up, but there is a project on foot to clear it out again. Water still runs in the upper portion of it in the rainy season. This cut was made by Ráni Nakáyan from the Deg at Pindi Rattan Singh in the Lahore district. It is of little benefit to Sheikhpura and the villages of this district. It was cleared out some years ago, the

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District Board of Gujránwála paying two-fifths of the cost, the Lahore district three-fifths; but the Lahore zamíndárs have intercepted all the supply by putting up dams.

The village of Khángth Dográn, which lies four marches out from Lahore on the high road to Shahpur and Bannu, in the heart of the Bár, was till recently a place of little importance. It was famous only for the shrines or tombs of departed saints, who have lived here since the time of Akbar, and were held in high repute by the Musalmán tribes of the Bár. The estate, which was originally named Khángth Masrúr, was founded about 350 years ago by one Masrúr Dogar, whose brother Asrúr is supposed to have founded the neighbouring village of Khángth Asrúr or Míán Ali, also a shrine of some sanctity. The daughter of Masrúr married Háji Dewán, a famous Dogar saint from Sínde, from whom the present owners are descended. There are a number of solid and striking-looking tombs (*rozás*) built from generation to generation in memory of departed saints, and each receives the offerings of the faithful at the religious fair held here in the month of Háir. The most prominent is that of Háji Dewán, which also receives the largest offerings. The effect of this mass of solid architecture in the heart of the Bár, where it stands out in bold relief, is very picturesque. In October 1893 Khángth Dográn was made the head-quarters of the new tahsil to which it gives its name, and as it is in the centre of the canal-irrigated tract and close to the new colony, it is rapidly rising in importance. There is a tahsil, thána and Sub-Registrar's office, but the present accommodation is most defective. There is an encamping ground but no rest-house or even sarái. The old sarái has been partly dismantled and sites for a new town on the old encamping ground have been marked out and allotted. As there has been a considerable influx of shopkeepers, artizans, traders, &c., these sites have been eagerly taken up at rates fixed by Government. Khángth Dográn has a prosperous future before it, lying advantageously at the head of the new colony with direct communication with Lahore and Gujránwála. The new railway will pass within seven or eight miles of it. The population, which between 1881 and 1891 had increased from 877 to 1,646, is now about 2,500.

Shahkot.

Shahkot was formerly within the Jhang district, but was transferred to Gujránwála in 1892 when the boundary was revised and the new tahsil started. Prior to the opening up of the Bár it was one of the few fixed habitations in that tract. Here, as at Khángth Dográn and Míán Ali, the nucleus was a Muhammadan shrine, and the old inhabitants were the Majawars or attendants of the shrine. They had no proprietary rights in the land, but owned large herds of cattle and were allowed grazing rights free in the surrounding Government waste. The old village lay at the base of the Shahkot hill, a rocky eminence of a quartz formation similar to the hill at Sàngla. Shahkot rose into importance when the colonisation work began in 1892, as it was made the head-quarters of the

Colonization Officer, being the only place in the Government waste where there was anything approaching a settled village. Since then it has developed rapidly. A new town known as Pophamabad, after Lieutenant Popham Young, the Colonization Officer, has now been laid out on a suitable site half a mile to the east of the old village. Regular streets have been marked out, sites allotted, traders and shopkeepers have been attracted, many shops and houses have already been built, and there are all the indications of the place becoming an important commercial centre. At Shahkot there is a thána, a commodious bungalow, and a sarái, the latter two have been recently constructed. A dispensary has also been opened which is maintained by the District Boards of Jhang and Gujranwála in equal shares. A suitable building has yet to be constructed. The new railway will run about 10 miles to the west of Shahkot.

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STATISTICAL TABLES
APPENDED TO THE
GAZETTEER
OF THE
GUJRANWALA DISTRICT.

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(INDEX ON REVERSE.)

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Table No. II,—showing DEVELOPMENT

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
DETAIL.	Regular Settlement, 1855-54.	Revised Settlement, 1885-86.	1873-74.	1878-79.	1885-86.	Second Revised Settlement, 1892-93.	1893-94.	
Population	550,922	...	616,802	616,892	690,169	690,169	
Cultivated acres	484,687	573,383	553,482	611,882	606,314	855,794	868,721	
Irrigated acres	334,495	327,832	380,443	387,066	451,393	487,221	499,175	
„ from Government works	128,068	139,570	
Assessed land revenue, Rs.	5, 11,896	5,83,040	5,98,084	630,971	647,629	7,53,751	8,37,270	
Revenue from land, Rs.	4,68,983	4,55,073	498,394	520,428	7,41,897	7,20,463	
Gross revenue, Rs.	5,72,973	5,93,349	671,514	6,48,773	10,25,508	10,25,118	
Number of kine	243,222	155,670	122,689	113,170	95,158	117,297	
„ Sheep and goats	21,820	57,559	41,562	43,545	167,696	150,994	
„ Camels	4,558	4,177	2,981	922	3,435	2,301	
Miles of metalled roads	} 48	} 52	51	46	51	51	
„ unmetalled roads			1,055	1,078	1,132	1,127	1,127
„ railway	43	42	47	47
Police staff	520	528	511	616	559	594	
Prisoners convicted	1,251	1,442	2,354	3,353	678	688	720	
Civil suits, number	1,671	4,531	8,713	9,392	9,731	11,832	12,870	
Value in rupees	98,772	1,78,616	3,56,245	4,40,205	5,21,991	10,02,412	601,428	
Municipalities, number	2	10	10	6	6	
Income in rupees	21,796	37,948	49,452	77,154	98,737	96,970	
Dispensaries, number of	3	5	5	6	7	12	
„ patients	9,048	17,824	31,021	44,302	61,633	143,323	
Schools, number of	70	66	87	102	67	95	
„ scholars	2,783	3,814	4,729	6,734	6,401	6,556	

Table No. III,--showing RAINFALL.

ANNUAL RAINFALL IN TENTHS OF AN INCH.

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Average.
Rain Gauge Station.	1866-67.	1867-68.	1868-69.	1869-70.	1870-71.	1871-72.	1872-73.	1873-74.	1874-75.	1875-76.	1876-77.	1877-78.	1878-79.	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.	1883-84.	1884-85.	1885-86.	1886-87.	1887-88.	1888-89.	1889-90.	1890-91.	1891-92.	1892-93.	1893-94.		
Sadar Kacheri, Gujranwala	346	334	319	263	182	175	213	279	159	474	390	191	238	162	138	278	234	263	211	106	252	241	236	321	189	228	336	407	269	
Wasirabad	
Jalalabad	111	215	217	184	164	169	163	182	160	262	253	176	271	164	166	171	249	173	159	227	157	147	235	204	170	239	313	364	203	
Behkuppur	60	182	74	147	72	108	214	250	195	126	170	117	187	210	219	83	236	254	201	164	
Mannagar	248	215	179	172	221	254	202	224	206	233	368	384	254	

Table No. IIIA,—showing RAINFALL at HEAD-QUARTERS.

1	2	3	4
MONTH.	ANNUAL AVERAGES.		
	Number of rainy days in each month, 1867 to 1876.	Rainfall in tenths of an inch in each month, 1867 to 1881.	Rainfall in tenths of an inch in each month, 1882 to 1892.
January	2	8	21
February	3	16	8
March	4	14	10
April	2	10	4
May	2	8	3
June	3	19	16
July	8	75	53
August	6	61	55
September	4	21	21
October	1	5	3
November	2	3
December	1	8	3
1st October to 1st January	2	15	10
1st January to 1st April	9	88	40
1st April to 1st October	25	194	154
Whole year	36	247	205

Table No. IIIB,—showing RAINFALL at TAHSIL STATIONS.

1	2	3	4	5
TAHSIL STATIONS.	AVERAGE FALL IN TENTHS OF AN INCH FROM 1873-74 to 1877-78.			
	1st October to 1st January.	1st January to 1st April.	1st April to 1st October.	Whole year.
Wazirabad	5	39	209	253
Hafizabad	7	29	147	183
TAHSIL STATIONS.	6	7	8	9
TAHSIL STATIONS.	AVERAGE FALL IN TENTHS OF AN INCH FROM 1879 to 1892.			
	1st October to 1st January.	1st January to 1st April.	1st April to 1st October.	Whole year.
Wazirabad	9	35	158	204
Hafizabad	7	27	146	181

Table No. V,—showing the DISTRIBUTION of POPULATION.

1								2	3	4	5
Detail.								District.	TAHSILS DETAILED.		
									Gujranwála.	Wazirabad.	Háfizabad.
Total square miles							2,915	756	446	1,713	
Cultivated square miles							1,337	472	252	613	
Culturable square miles							1,121	228	123	770	
Square miles under crops (average 1888-89 1892-93)							1,078	423	258	397	
Total population							690,169	269,166	183,606	237,397	
Urban „							62,109	35,469	26,640	...	
Rural „							628,060	233,697	156,966	237,397	
Total population per square mile							237	356	407	140	
Rural „ „							215	309	351	*140	
Over 10,000 souls							3	1	1	1	
5,000 to 10,000							2	1	1	...	
3,000 to 5,000							9	2	4	3	
2,000 to 3,000							26	10	7	9	
1,000 to 2,000							105	47	29	29	
500 to 1,000							231	90	55	86	
Under 500							812	293	161	358	
						Total	1,188	444	258	486	
Occupied houses ...	{	Towns					11,056	5,756	5,300	...	
	{	Villages					90,117	34,501	25,827	29,789	
Resident families ...	{	Towns					14,384	7,733	6,651	...	
	{	Villages					128,809	48,677	30,671	49,461	

Table No. VI.—showing MIGRATION.

1 BIRTH PLACES.	2 3 4			5 6 7		
	IMMIGRANTS.			EMIGRANTS.		
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.
Hissar	94	69	25	58	45	13
Rohtak	191	122	69	12	9	3
Gurgaon	117	85	32	18	16	2
Delhi	189	112	77	46	34	12
Karnal	135	84	51	38	26	12
Umballa	632	486	146	254	193	61
Simla	21	16	5	40	26	14
Kangra	108	76	30	72	60	12
Hoshiarpur	714	627	87	202	114	88
Jullundur	544	404	140	257	146	111
Ludhiana	326	242	84	74	51	23
Ferozepore	281	178	103	936	625	311
Mooltan	230	146	84	1,502	1,038	464
Jhang	6,091	3,368	2,723	2,766	1,325	1,440
Montgomery	1,957	1,131	826	1,159	700	459
Lahore	4,104	3,455	649	29,949	14,648	15,301
Amritsar	1,982	1,175	807	2,122	1,099	1,023
Gurdaspur	924	593	331	643	344	299
Siakot	32,710	12,243	20,467	19,694	6,344	13,350
Gujrat	8,730	5,984	2,746	9,359	3,229	6,130
Sheepur	3,422	1,293	2,129	3,952	1,917	2,035
Jhelum	1,028	699	329	1,084	646	438
Rawalpindi	896	658	238	3,478	2,737	741
Hazara	139	107	32	220	156	64
Peshawar	232	167	65	1,034	730	304
Kohat	71	64	7	453	390	63
Bannu	62	56	6	358	284	74
Dera Ismail Khan	59	39	20	406	312	94
Dera Ghazi Khan	85	76	9	199	158	41
Muzaffargarh	55	50	5	347	252	95
Total Punjab States	370	232	138
Total other Provinces in India	1,438	1,020	418
GRAND TOTAL	70,362	36,648	33,714	77,692	39,045	38,647

Table No. VII.—showing RELIGION and SEX.

1 DESCRIPTION.	2 3 4			5 6 7			8 Villages.	9 Towns.
	DISTRICT.			TAHSILS.				
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Gujranwala.	Wazirabad.	Hafizabad.		
Persons	690,169	260,166	183,006	237,397	628,000	62,109
Males	379,034	...	145,739	101,734	131,561	346,384	32,650
Females	311,135	123,427	81,272	105,836	281,616	29,459
Hindus	166,278	92,227	74,051	74,369	41,097	50,812	146,147	20,131
Sikh	45,316	26,513	18,803	24,523	6,173	14,620	41,917	3,309
Jain	727	382	345	631	90	...	59	668
Musalman	475,494	258,504	216,990	108,327	135,254	171,918	448,046	37,443
Christian	2,353	1,407	946	1,315	986	52	1,891	462
Others	1	1	...	1	1

Table No. VIII.—showing LANGUAGES.

Serial No.	LANGUAGES.	District.	DISTRIBUTION BY TAHSILS.		
			Gujránwála.	Wazirabad.	Háfizabad.
1	Hindustáni	2,769	504	974	1,201
2	Bogre	44	5	23	11
3	Punjábi	686,379	268,152	182,156	236,071
4	Dogri	83	57	26	...
5	Pahári	47	43	4	...
6	Tibete	13	...	13	...
7	Pashtu	416	89	253	74
8	Bengáli	17	15	2	...
9	Goanese	4	...	4	...
10	Gujráti	36	36
11	Kashmiri	201	154	45	2
12	Dakhni	2	...	1	1
13	(Mahratti)
14	Nipáli	1	1
15	Sindhi	1	1
16	Madrási	1	...	1	...
17	(Tamil)
18	Abrabic	7	1	6	...
19	Persian	42	11	30	1
20	English	105	43	62	...
21	French	1	...	1	...
	Total District ...	690,169	269,166	183,606	237,397

Table No. IX,—showing MAJOR CASTES and TRIBES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Serial No.	Caste or Tribe.	TOTAL NUMBER.			DETAILS BY RELIGION.					Proportion per mille of population.
		Persons.	Males.	Females.	Hindu.	Sikh.	Jains.	Christian.	Musalmán.	
1	Total population...	690,169	379,034	311,135	166,278	45,316	727	2,353	475,404	
2	Biloch	3,556	1,904	1,652	3,556	
3	Jat Hindu	552	302	250	
4	„ Musalmán	661	402	250	
5	Rájpút Hindu	106	105	1	
6	„ Musalmán	220	227	2	
7	Aráin	24,002	12,802	11,200	24,002	
8	Sheikh	7,295	4,056	3,239	3	7,295	
9	Brahman	18,409	10,130	8,279	18,050	347	8	
10	Sayad	6,662	3,624	3,038	6,662	
11	Ulma	7,913	4,156	3,757	7,913	
12	Faqírs	5,997	3,463	2,544	6	5	5,886	
13	Nái	15,237	8,142	7,095	1,985	116	13,136	
14	Mirási	13,792	7,198	6,594	161	13,631	
15	Khatrí	23,216	12,971	10,245	20,003	3,195	18	
16	Arora	33,892	18,080	15,812	28,564	5,251	77	
17	Khojah	3,876	1,974	1,902	3,876	
18	Kashmiri	22,320	11,591	10,729	11	22,309	
19	Sánsi	3,028	1,676	1,352	2,347	6	675	
20	Chúhra	65,702	35,710	29,992	44,843	689	20,170	
21	Mochi	24,291	13,101	11,190	1	24,290	
22	Julláha	27,650	15,024	12,626	4	27,646	
23	Jhinwar	6,657	3,717	2,940	5,119	355	1,183	
24	Múchhi	18,265	9,906	8,359	18	18,247	
25	Lohár	13,364	7,161	6,203	172	251	12,941	
26	Tarkhán	29,192	15,824	13,368	4,141	5,015	20,088	
27	Kumbhár	29,231	16,086	13,145	2,152	570	26,509	
28	Dhobi	4,338	2,373	1,960	210	41	4,087	
29	Teli	10,850	5,881	4,969	14	10,836	
30	Sunár	7,129	3,879	3,250	5,013	1,332	784	
31	Barwála	5,939	3,189	2,750	4	1	5,934	

Table No. IXA,—showing MINOR CASTES and TRIBES.

1	2	3	4	5
Serial No.	Caste or Tribe.	Persons,	Males.	Females.
1	Pathán	1,423	979	444
2	Gujar	1,799	1,061	738
3	Awán	1,870	1,075	795
4	Kamboh	712	356	356
5	Mughal	1,050	584	466
6	Qassáb	2,578	1,299	1,277
7	Malláh	948	524	424
8	Kaláí	1,482	695	787
9	Changar	4,115	2,153	1,962
10	Lilári	2,353	1,288	1,065
11	Bhātiya	1,058	569	489
12	Bhábra	779	417	362
13	Bazigar	482	273	209
14	Gogra	623	348	275
15	Chimba	3,562	1,940	1,622
16	Darzi	2,177	937	1,240
17	Jogi	2,054	1,130	924
18	Kharral	5,444	3,009	2,375
19	Native Christians	2,246	1,346	900
20	Eurasians	34	19	15

Table No. X,—showing CIVIL CONDITION.

1		2		3		4	
DETAIL.		UNMARRIED.		MARRIED.		WIDOWED.	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Actual figures for Religions,	All religions	202,399	120,214	153,750	154,504	22,885	36,417
	Hindús	50,745	27,927	35,936	36,420	5,546	9,794
	Sikhs	14,317	6,429	10,476	10,112	1,720	2,262
	Jains	202	150	151	156	29	30
	Musalmán's	136,414	85,319	106,569	107,922	15,521	24,349
	Christian	721	339	617	494	69	63
	Others	1
Distribution of every 10,000 souls of each age,	All ages	202,399	120,214	153,750	154,504	22,885	36,417
	0-4	54,610	48,207	37	62	3	5
	5-9	55,253	45,258	332	1,043	18	38
	10-14	36,302	20,985	2,768	8,169	89	147
	15-19	27,262	4,629	14,313	28,714	662	753
	20-24	12,433	540	23,126	28,951	1,345	1,308
	25-29	6,307	220	25,755	27,490	1,714	2,050
	30-34	2,645	100	18,426	16,207	1,379	2,174
	35-39	2,218	80	19,818	17,296	2,818	4,548
	40-44	1,066	34	11,059	8,065	1,453	2,777
	45-49	1,512	56	34,964	9,240	3,032	6,133
	50-54	628	12	5,383	3,155	1,395	2,110
	55-59	1,141	48	10,540	3,986	4,273	11,117
60 and over	1,002	45	7,229	2,126	5,304	7,291	

Table No. XI,—showing BIRTHS and DEATHS.

1 YEARS.	2 TOTAL BIRTHS REGISTERED.			5 TOTAL DEATHS REGISTERED.			8 TOTAL DEATHS FROM			11 Bowel complaints.
	3 Males.	4 Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	9 Cholera	10 Small-pox.	Fever.	
1888	15,520	13,430	28,950	11,700	10,472	22,172	1,980	48	15,427	444
1889	15,483	13,500	29,073	13,210	11,477	24,687	...	94	20,098	400
1890	14,610	12,828	27,438	27,691	25,340	53,031	17	122	47,169	514
1891	12,670	11,222	23,892	12,182	9,720	21,911	264	2	17,030	184
1892	17,001	15,107	32,108	17,898	15,715	33,613	1,868	3	26,194	215
1893	12,106	10,591	22,697	11,635	9,232	20,867	204	7	15,666	224
1894	18,718	16,491	35,209	13,711	11,922	25,633	...	18	18,925	102

Table No. XIA,—showing MONTHLY DEATHS from ALL CAUSES.

1 MONTHS.	2		3		4		5		6		7		8	
	1888.	1889.	1889.	1890.	1890.	1891.	1891.	1892.	1892.	1893.	1893.	1894.	1894.	
January	1,682	2,084	3,240	2,488	1,438	2,461	3,198							
February	1,088	1,316	1,711	1,740	1,055	1,592	1,941							
March	942	1,127	1,560	1,261	1,054	1,238	1,551							
April	744	1,139	1,600	1,224	925	944	1,689							
May	1,476	1,306	1,729	1,407	1,596	1,804	2,160							
June	1,314	1,344	1,804	1,695	2,415	1,454	1,738							
July	1,700	1,662	1,093	4,210	2,211	1,285	1,659							
August	3,551	1,410	2,214	2,005	1,825	1,446	1,806							
September	1,939	2,197	8,798	1,537	4,674	1,589	2,302							
October	2,715	3,704	16,110	1,412	8,655	2,107	2,023							
November	2,650	4,353	7,234	1,440	4,770	2,290	2,468							
December	2,272	3,036	5,089	1,483	2,995	2,558	2,190							
Total	22,172	24,687	53,031	21,911	33,613	20,867	25,633							

Table No. XIB, - showing MONTHLY DEATHS from FEVER.

1 MONTH.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.
January	1,289	1,698	2,672	2,148	1,075	1,919	2,504
February	770	1,008	1,297	1,470	740	1,219	1,480
March	668	812	1,147	999	800	889	1,084
April	508	789	1,180	931	663	637	1,153
May	1,102	959	1,297	1,141	1,000	1,242	1,625
June	984	1,018	1,434	1,464	994	998	1,330
July	980	1,232	1,431	3,787	1,060	990	1,175
August	1,442	1,022	1,728	1,627	1,097	1,121	1,203
September	1,177	1,780	8,145	1,137	4,060	1,219	1,666
October	2,260	3,278	15,893	1,062	8,068	1,673	2,243
November	2,287	3,840	6,854	1,076	4,159	1,817	1,859
December	1,950	2,662	4,591	1,097	2,469	2,002	1,594
Total ...	15,427	20,008	47,169	17,939	26,194	15,666	18,925

Table No. XII, - showing INFIRMITIES.

1	2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9	
	INSANE.		BLIND.		DEAF AND MUTES.		LEPERS.									
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Total census, 1881	184	83	1,930	1,620	303	166	51	21								
Ditto, 1891	136	47	1,366	1,154	326	145	28	12								

Table No. XIII, - showing EDUCATION.

1	2		3		4		5		1		2		3	
	MALES.		FEMALES.								MALES AND FEMALES.			
	Under instruction.	Can read and write.	Under instruction.	Can read and write.					Under instruction.	Can read and write.				
All religions	5,772	21,735	237	384										
Hindus	3,119	13,501	114	153	Details for Tahsils, -									
Akh	621	3,016	19	65										
Sain	36	207	Gujranwala	3,137	9,179				
Musalman	1,880	4,898	78	100	Wazirabad	1,827	7,850				
Christian	116	112	26	66	Hafizabad	1,045	5,090				
Others	1										
					Total	6,009	22,119				

Details for tahsils not available.

Table No. XIV,—showing DETAIL of SURVEYED and ASSESSED AREA.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12								
												CULTIVATED.				UNCULTIVATED.			
												Irrigated.		Unirrigated.	Total cultivated.	Forests.	Culturable.	Unculturable.	Total uncultivated.
YEAR.	By Government works.	By private individuals.																	
883-84	...	384,495	150,192	484,687	...	317,384	760,728	1,078,062	1,502,749	332,386	...								
888-89	...	420,945	152,438	673,383	...	689,864	325,870	1,025,734	1,509,126	587,050	...								
873-74	...	389,443	164,039	553,482	387,755	402,443	296,538	1,086,741	1,640,223	508,084	...								
878-79	...	387,006	223,916	611,922	379,844	317,613	346,356	1,043,813	1,655,695	630,971	152,682								
885-86	...	451,393	154,921	606,314	373,491	334,223	342,086	1,079,800	1,686,114	648,778	154,527								
888-89	49,180	425,000	248,605	717,463	224,953	709,755	246,139	1,180,847	1,808,250	640,555	161,799								
890-90	33,038	397,939	233,295	664,322	224,953	709,755	246,139	1,180,847	1,845,169	636,121	11,897								
890-91	85,319	384,755	256,492	676,566	216,700	706,070	234,709	1,147,479	1,824,045	632,059	10,978								
91-92	27,672	344,107	297,335	599,714	225,191	635,255	200,684	1,118,130	1,717,844	631,300	11,868								
92-93	123,068	350,153	256,256	743,477	1,806	841,228	135,434	978,468	1,721,945	753,751	26,042								
93-94	130,570	359,695	351,994	851,169	22,956	844,249	132,696	976,855	1,821,104	837,270	5,298								

TAHSIL DETAILS FOR 1893-94.

NAME OF TAHSIL.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Juānwāla	...	154,621	160,313	314,934	2,057	141,893	32,950	174,843	310,736	325,363	762
Muzirabad	1,652	118,347	50,391	170,390	1,721	79,197	44,717	123,914	203,111	231,404	794
Muzabad	51,156	67,800	74,779	193,735	1,810	238,860	37,226	326,086	614,946	198,737	124
Māngāh Dogrān	86,762	18,777	66,511	172,050	17,363	334,299	17,743	352,012	686,311	61,716	3,528

Table No. XV.—VARIETIES of TENURE held direct from GOVERNMENT during the YEAR ending RABI 1894.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Description of villages according to revenue paid by them.	Tenure.	Number of estates.	Number of villages.	Number of holders or shareholders.	Gross area.	Average area of each estate.	Average assessment of each estate.
Villages paying Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 50,000	1. Zamindari	1	1	149	3,028	3,028	5,200
Villages paying Rs. 100 to Rs. 5,000	2. Patidari and Bhayachara	177	179	705	287,130	1,622	271
Villages paying less than Rs. 100	1. Zamindari	18	18	486	5,607	312	50
	2. Patidari and Bhayachara	18	18	414	5,790	322	60
	Leases from Government without right of ownership	8	8	10	4,948	619	310
	Total	1,310	1,829	55,152	1,851,279	1,413	639
ADDENDA.							
A.—Holdings included in the above held wholly or partially free of revenue, viz. :—							
1. In perpetuity free of conditions	214	200,504	...	108,408
2. Ditto subject to conditions	1,107	25,279	...	13,200
3. For life or lives	613	20,340	...	21,480
4. At pleasure of Government	27	59	...	164
5. Up to the time of Settlement	20	244	...	274
	Total of these holdings	2,071	306,475	...	143,616
	Lands included in the above of which the ownership is encumbered by usufructuary mortgages	7,824	130,478

Table No. XVI.—RETURN showing the CULTIVATING OCCUPANCY of LAND for the YEAR ending RABI 1894.

DETAILS.	TAHSIL GUJRAHWALA.		TAHSIL WAZIRABAD.		TAHSIL HAFIZABAD.		TAHSIL KHANGAH DOGRAH.		TOTAL OF THE DISTRICT.	
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Number of holdings	Area.	Number of holdings	Area.	Number of holdings	Area.	Number of holdings	Area.	Number of holdings	Area.
Total cultivated area	77,255	306,368	41,412	162,529	47,348	240,720	30,105	150,104	196,210	868,721
Area cultivated by owners	29,906	139,801	15,693	72,987	15,857	102,905	7,206	48,968	68,872	343,541
Ditto by tenants free of rent or at nominal rent	6,774	6,414	2,154	1,465	685	988	492	902	10,115	9,769
With right of occupancy. { Paying at revenue rates, with or without <i>Mitkâza</i>	3,295	12,084	1,870	8,173	2,029	11,029	829	2,416	8,023	35,502
{ Paying other cash rents	373	1,094	167	463	72	538	50	131	632	2,220
{ Paying in kind, with or without an addition in cash	340	450	132	391	55	184	98	97	575	1,122
Without right of occupancy. { Paying at revenue rates, with or without <i>Mitkâza</i>	5,176	17,850	4,177	13,472	4,529	20,500	1,631	4,663	15,513	56,485
{ Paying other cash rents	12,308	48,636	5,006	24,629	7,424	47,174	15,069	78,773	40,407	201,212
{ Paying in kind, with or without an addition in cash	18,993	79,039	12,223	39,270	10,657	56,507	4,180	24,954	52,053	198,370
Total held by tenants paying rent	40,455	160,053	23,565	88,397	30,766	136,827	22,407	110,134	117,223	465,411

DETAILS.	AREA.		AREA.		AREA.		AREA.		AREA.	
	Irrigated.	Unirrigated.	Irrigated.	Unirrigated.	Irrigated.	Unirrigated.	Irrigated.	Unirrigated.	Irrigated.	Unirrigated.
	Number of holdings	Area.	Number of holdings	Area.	Number of holdings	Area.	Number of holdings	Area.	Number of holdings	Area.
1. Zabti rents	477	179	2,681	127	264	167	966	167
2. Half produce or more	269	137	1,501	1,681	112	802	8,493	722
3. Two-fifths and less than half	7,282	5,456	6,194	3,583	10,707	8,400	39	114	1,730	2,298
4. One-third and less than two-fifths	5,368	4,630	813	7,748	27,899	7,748	15	393	26,086	18,442
5. Less than one-third	49,829	5,472	20,796	1,653	830	146	12,878	9,258	40,686	21,746
6. By fixed amount of produce	63,166	19,872	32,167	7,103	39,194	17,313	13,762	10,292	70,972	7,248
7. Total area under rents in kind	13,947	3,903	11,149	2,322	16,960	8,540	1,989	2,674	44,045	12,440
8. Total paying at revenue rates, with or without <i>Mitkâza</i> .	36,258	13,378	23,612	3,017	33,788	13,380	54,041	23,732	147,689	53,513
9. Total paying other cash rents	121,769	63,411	72,509	49,394	327,718	327,718
10. Total cash rents paid on area entered in 9

Table No. XVII,—showing GOVERNMENT LANDS.

1	2	3		4	5	6	7	8			
		ACRES HELD UNDER CULTIVATING LEASES.							REMAINING ACRES.		
		Total acres.	Cultivated.						Uncultivated.	Under Forest Department.	Under other Departments.
								Rs.			
Tahsil Gujránwála	3,408	124	550	2,083	...	645	263				
„ Wazirabad	2,383	204	...	2,179	504				
„ Háfizabad	235,056	46,239	154,876	21,457	9,655	2,829	5,810				
Total District	240,847	46,567	155,432	25,719	9,655	3,474	6,577				

Table No. XIX,—showing LAND ACQUIRED by GOVERNMENT.

1	2	3	4
Purpose for which acquired.	Acres acquired.	Compensation paid, in rupees.	Reduction of revenue, in rupees.
		Rs.	Rs.
Roads	2,657	9,978	917
Canals	6,657	1,26,898	1,700
State Railway	3,748	43,534	829
Guaranteed Railway
Miscellaneous	685	11,174	169
Total	13,747	1,91,584	3,615

Table No. XX,—showing ACRES UNDER CROPS.

YEARS.	I														
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	Total.	Rice.	Wheat.	Jawar.	Bajra.	Makai.	Jau.	Gram.	Moht.	Poppy.	Tobacco	Cotton.	Indigo.	Sugar-cane.	Vegetables.
3-74	554,482	17,385	169,178	48,408	4,664	13,513	11,059	25,254	58,727	170	4,021	34,726	...	23,321	22,201
4-75	500,504	11,355	180,078	44,007	4,010	12,213	66,559	39,254	44,682	244	5,168	38,041	...	21,853	41,972
5-76	567,426	7,009	187,015	45,330	5,556	10,961	62,515	17,670	56,561	140	4,054	35,161	...	25,786	54,741
6-77	588,404	9,925	203,745	44,206	5,004	16,335	64,082	31,682	44,608	147	3,239	33,376	...	20,025	56,988
7-78	473,004	792	220,266	14,863	213	10,947	86,184	41,893	1,203	122	2,563	33,347	...	19,278	18,410
8-79	611,822	10,147	216,981	22,811	1,480	16,800	152,374	7,003	42,088	167	2,430	37,862	...	19,236	41,820
9-80	592,650	10,201	214,683	55,398	2,205	21,020	10,498	12,170	33,764	105	1,563	32,555	...	19,184	17,514
0-81	625,501	13,635	230,361	47,129	4,672	19,124	100,819	17,864	43,310	73	3,530	28,504	...	20,773	35,777
1-82	616,132	14,000	231,694	53,249	3,413	23,471	56,810	22,770	43,750	113	3,947	32,551	...	20,934	33,588
2-83	679,395	16,300	252,321	66,076	7,733	19,764	65,397	62,619	20,043	159	2,000	26,291	...	19,948	1,805
3-84	667,308	21,256	225,085	82,269	7,700	22,044	56,599	47,429	38,870	152	1,761	30,072	3	22,205	1,606
4-85	724,856	24,103	250,620	63,615	10,202	20,459	77,065	53,220	50,430	93	2,188	31,670	21	17,800	1,167
5-86	544,498	13,070	206,075	49,463	4,314	22,313	43,894	50,483	23,106	47	1,585	13,815	14	13,219	1,370
6-87	883,776	27,433	254,704	120,222	14,789	21,950	68,044	75,837	54,110	121	2,953	30,792	44	14,850	2,034
7-88	851,160	32,915	261,442	65,979	12,361	27,106	49,702	68,738	36,625	63	2,530	53,320	39	17,015	1,943

TAKSIL AVERAGES FOR THE FIVE YEARS, FROM 1889-90 TO 1893-94.

NAME OF TAKSIL.	I														
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Gujranwala	205,798	4,847	81,013	31,406	434	9,622	19,830	22,105	18,586	41	645	10,643	...	7,419	731
Fazilabad	165,422	5,578	61,776	12,689	977	6,999	17,851	10,275	7,627	26	634	7,001	...	5,269	555
Lahore	278,167	13,330	12,612	32,841	8,482	6,146	13,111	18,718	12,978	26	912	16,258	24	4,301	269
Total	753,387	23,755	233,441	76,916	9,893	22,767	69,514	59,308	39,190	63	2,191	33,902	24	17,020	1,655

1	2	RENTS COMMONLY PAID BY TENANTS-AT-WILL.										11	12
		FOR LAND IRRIGATED BY WELLS ONLY.		FOR LAND IRRIGATED BY WELLS AND CANALS.		FOR LAND IRRIGATED BY CANALS ONLY.		FOR ALLUVIAL LAND.		FOR LAND DEPENDENT ON RAIN.			
TAHSIL.	Division of Tahsil.	Cash rents per acre.	Kind rent per cent. of gross produce.	Cash rents per acre.	Kind rent per cent. of gross produce.	Cash rents per acre.	Kind rent per cent. of gross produce.	Cash rents per acre.	Kind rent per cent. of gross produce.	Cash rents per acre.	Kind rent per cent. of gross produce.	Cash rents per acre.	Kind rent per cent. of gross produce.
Gujranwala	Charkhari	Rs. A. P. 4 0 0	33 and 25	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P. 2 0 0	33 and 25
	Bangar	3 0 0	1 8 0
	Bar	2 0 0	1 8 0
	Charkhari	4 0 0	40	1 8 0
Wazirabad	Chendb	3 0 0	40 and 33	1 8 0	33
	Bangar	2 8 0	40 and 33	2 0 0	25	1 12 0	33
	Chenab	2 8 0	33	2 0 0	25	2 0 0	33	1 0 0	25
Hafizabad	Bangar	2 0 0	33 and 25	...	33 and 25	1 8 0	25	1 0 0	25
	Bar	2 0 0	33 and 25	...	33 and 25	1 8 0	25	1 0 0	25

Table No. XXII.— showing NUMBER of STOCK.

1	2	3	WHOLE DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS.			TAHSILS FOR THE YEAR 1893-94.			
			1873-74.	1878-79.	1888-89.	1893-94.	Gujranwála.	Wazirabad.	Hafizabad.
Cows and bullocks ...	243,222	155,670	122,689	238,037	472,932	154,145	82,669	139,852	96,266
Horses ...	635	600	657	7,221	11,899	3,442	2,753	3,206	2,498
Ponies ...	1,162	1,254	757	15,196	16,138	5,376	3,409	5,020	2,333
Donkeys ...	7,540	8,549	4,600	202,506	150,994	51,407	18,177	51,781	20,629
Sheep and goats ...	21,820	57,550	41,562
Pigs	60
Camels ...	4,558	4,177	2,681	3,270	2,301	228	198	521	1,354
Carts ...	375	340	652	1,864	2,551	658	117	268	1,508
Ploughs ...	56,348	51,909	69,563	70,931	81,167	29,972	16,230	18,810	16,155
Boats ...	80	121	87	76	68	...	53	15	...

Table No. XXIII,—showing OCCUPATIONS of MALES.

1 Number.	2 Nature of occupations.	3 MALES ABOVE 15 YEARS OF AGE.			4 Number.	5 Nature of occupations.	6 MALES ABOVE 15 YEARS OF AGE.		
		7 Towns.	8 Villages.	9 Total.			10 Towns.	11 Villages.	12 Total.
1	Total population	23,947	176,604	200,551	17	Agricultural labourers ...	452	6,270	6,722
2	Occupation specified	21,172	163,861	185,033	18	Pastoral	127	1,832	1,959
3	Agricultural, whether simple or combined.	3,107	81,871	84,978	19	Cooks and other servants...	1,005	471	1,476
4	Civil Administration	1,190	2,149	3,239	20	Water-carriers	355	11,002	11,357
5	Army	44	123	167	21	Sweepers and scavengers...	440	297	737
6	Religion	939	3,040	3,979	22	Workers in wool and cashmere, leaves, straw, &c.	251	190	441
7	Barbers	310	2,979	3,289	23	Workers in leather	264	4,672	4,936
8	Other professions	423	1,977	2,400	24	Boot makers	117	82	199
9	Money-lenders, general traders, pedlars, &c.	637	1,369	2,026	25	Workers in wool and pashm silk	51	20	71
10	Dealers in grain and flour	1,465	5,873	7,338	26	" " cotton	1,643	13,555	15,198
11	Corn-grinders, parchers, &c.	104	150	254	27	" " wood	450	4,548	4,998
12	Confectioners, green-grocers, &c.	657	312	1,169	28	Potters	160	4,444	4,604
13	Carriers and boatmen	1,205	2,567	3,772	29	Workers and dealers in gold and silver.	422	1,067	1,489
14	Landowners	740	31,905	32,645	30	Workers in iron	118	1,303	1,916
15	Tenants	1,750	49,654	51,404	31	General labourers	1,308	2,462	3,970
16	Joint-cultivators	2	705	707	32	Beggars, fakirs, and the like	1,953	9,651	11,610

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XIII of the Census Report of 1881.

Table No. XXIV,—showing MANUFACTURES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Silk.	Cotton.	Wool.	Other fabrics.	Paper.	Wood.	Iron.	Brass and copper.	Building.	Dyeing and Manufacturing of dyes.
Number of mills and large factories
Number of private looms or small works.	16	9,617	294	25	6	1,767	1,069	66	955	330
Number of workmen { Male
in large works. { Female
Number of workmen in small works or independent artisans.	23	9,617	324	30	20	2,048	1,580	325	955	362
Value of plant in large works	6,870	11,07,680	38,703	1,560	5,204	5,03,094	2,57,085	1,08,783	2,02,470	42,060
Estimated annual outturn of all works in rupees.
Number of mills and large factories
Number of private looms or small works.	1,915	1,565	532	4	4	649	930	19,794
Number of workmen { Male
in large works. { Female
Number of workmen in small works or independent artisans.	1,293	2,134	796	9	10	814	1,441	21,707
Value of plant in large works	3,15,680	89,030	1,10,892	972	365	8,96,860	81,339	37,59,647
Estimated annual outturn of all works in rupees.

NOTE.—These figures are taken from the Report on Internal Trade and Manufactures for 1881-82.

Table No. XXVI,--showing RETAIL PRICES.

Year.	NUMBER OF SEAS AND CHITAKS PER RUPEE.																															
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16																
Wheat.	S. Ch.		Barley.		Gram.		Indian corn.		Jowar.		Bajra.		Rice (fine).		Urd dal.		Potatoes.		Cotton (cleaned).		Sugar (refined).		Ghi (cow's).		Firewood.		Tobacco.		Salt (Lahori).			
	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.	S.	Ch.
1861-62	22	6	36	14	26	9	36	14	30	13	36	14	26	9	8	10	3	3	3	12	3	10	2	1	121	5	8	14	10	1
1862-63	31	12	48	10	42	10	39	9	42	10	36	9	33	6	9	6	21	10	2	13	3	4	2	2	77	5	9	15	9	9
1863-64	21	15	48	10	42	10	35	15	32	10	33	9	33	9	12	9	20	10	2	13	3	4	2	2	77	5	9	15	9	9
1864-65	27	11	50	5	38	2	25	2	25	2	30	13	30	13	9	5	18	9	1	6	3	8	1	1	80	4	8	14	7	5
1865-66	23	11	39	5	35	9	23	6	27	3	28	4	28	4	7	4	17	4	1	6	3	8	1	1	80	4	8	14	7	5
1866-67	21	10	36	2	32	6	23	6	27	3	28	4	28	4	7	4	14	13	1	6	3	8	1	1	83	15	5	5	5	5
1867-68	19	4	33	2	30	13	23	13	18	10	17	14	17	14	7	15	11	13	1	6	3	8	1	1	83	15	5	5	5	5
1868-69	13	19	13	13	13	13	13	13	14	15	14	14	14	14	6	1	11	9	2	13	3	8	1	1	83	15	5	5	5	5
1869-70	11	14	19	13	15	2	20	1	20	1	15	4	14	4	6	9	13	11	2	11	3	7	1	1	81	10	8	10	8	10
1870-71	17	1	1	8	2	18	2	20	2	20	10	10	10	10	7	7	14	11	3	11	3	7	1	1	83	10	7	11	8	10
1871-72	17	1	1	8	2	18	2	20	2	20	10	10	10	10	7	7	14	11	3	11	3	7	1	1	83	10	7	11	8	10
1872-73	22	8	39	10	19	8	19	8	19	8	24	5	24	5	9	8	13	4	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1873-74	20	4	34	27	27	...	27	...	27	...	20	20	20	20	9	9	13	8	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1874-75	22	8	34	27	27	...	27	...	27	...	20	20	20	20	9	9	13	8	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1875-76	23	8	40	...	36	8	28	...	28	...	30	30	30	30	9	9	13	8	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1876-77	22	8	38	...	38	...	38	...	38	...	30	30	30	30	9	9	13	8	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1877-78	29	15	55	...	48	...	35	...	35	...	30	30	30	30	9	9	13	8	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1878-79	13	12	17	...	17	...	16	...	16	...	14	14	14	14	6	6	9	9	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1879-80	12	12	22	...	13	...	15	...	15	...	14	14	14	14	8	8	11	12	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1880-81	15	23	23	...	16	...	19	...	19	...	16	16	16	16	8	8	11	12	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1881-82	20	20	32	...	22	...	26	...	26	...	16	16	16	16	8	8	10	10	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1882-83	27	45	45	...	30	...	36	...	36	...	28	28	28	28	9	9	10	10	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1883-84	22	22	44	...	33	...	36	...	36	...	40	40	40	40	9	9	11	11	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1884-85	29	52	52	...	38	...	38	...	38	...	35	35	35	35	7	7	16	16	2	12	3	8	1	1	100
1885-86	18	4	35	8	27	13	22	14	22	14	20	...	17	5	Rice 13 1	16	8	...	Uncleaned 7 8	3	4	1	1	91	...	6	...	16	...
1886-87	18	4	25	9	22	1	16	...	14	3	12	1	12	1	14	3	18	4	11	...	10	...	1	7	106	...	5	...	15	8
1887-88	16	16	24	...	21	10	20	...	16	...	16	...	16	...	9	...	18	8	8	1	1	106	...	8	...	13	13
1888-89	18	4	28	...	23	...	20	...	20	...	18	...	18	...	9	...	16	8	1	1	106	...	8	...	13	13
1889-90	18	4	28	...	23	...	20	...	20	...	18	...	18	...	9	...	16	8	1	1	106	...	8	...	13	13
1890-91	17	17	30	...	24	...	24	...	24	...	12	...	12	...	8	...	14	7	1	1	106	...	8	...	13	13
1891-92	14	4	21	5	20	4	16	...	16	...	10	...	10	...	10	...	14	7	1	1	106	...	8	...	13	13
1892-93	16	16	28	4	26	4	16	...	16	...	10	...	10	...	10	...	10	2	1	1	100	13	13
1893-94	21	21	40	...	37	...	24	...	24	...	32	...	20	...	12	3	1	1	90	...	13	...	13	...
1898-94

Y. H. B.

Table No. XXVIII.—showing REVENUE COLLECTED

1	2	3	4	5	6		7	8	9	10
					EXCISE.					
YEAR.	Fixed Land Revenue.	Fluctuating and Miscellaneous Land Revenue.	Tribute.	Local Taxes.	Spirits.		Drugs.	Stamps.	Total Collections.	REMARKS.
					Rs.	Rs.				
1868-69	4,07,461	77,397	11,680	7,647	...	Rs. 40,293	5,63,687	
1869-70	4,42,193	21,395	11,619	8,405	...	Rs. 62,611	5,86,233	
1870-71	4,43,685	9,392	12,763	8,799	...	Rs. 65,569	5,29,503	
1871-72	4,43,602	1,695	...	31,166	12,953	10,730	...	Rs. 57,433	5,57,709	
1872-73	4,45,587	33,019	...	37,639	12,602	10,874	...	Rs. 64,723	6,04,244	
1873-74	4,49,367	2,376	...	37,122	12,381	8,006	...	Rs. 61,054	5,70,309	
1874-75	4,51,097	1,886	...	37,563	13,955	11,337	...	Rs. 65,783	5,81,491	
1875-76	4,51,684	1,888	...	37,379	15,298	8,206	...	Rs. 68,433	5,82,576	
1876-77	4,55,328	1,877	...	37,379	15,909	9,702	...	Rs. 69,839	5,90,134	
1877-78	4,57,748	3,629	...	37,604	18,401	9,231	...	Rs. 87,752	6,45,392	
1878-79	4,88,394	8,705	...	63,064	18,440	8,489	...	Rs. 65,542	6,53,684	
1879-80	4,89,415	4,808	...	46,869	14,963	8,651	...	Rs. 69,091	6,60,091	
1880-81	4,81,581	13,017	...	46,863	15,481	8,651	...	Rs. 1,05,490	6,82,932	
1881-82	4,82,937	12,805	...	46,903	16,852	9,070	...	Rs. 1,09,657	7,06,500	
1882-83	4,82,937	7,032	...	53,429	22,959	9,070	...	Rs. 1,09,657	7,17,231	
1883-84	5,04,013	6,997	...	53,429	22,959	11,485	...	Rs. 1,17,180	7,40,719	
1884-85	5,11,181	6,997	...	70,472	23,133	10,656	...	Rs. 1,12,264	7,27,316	
1885-86	5,04,242	7,316	...	68,972	23,263	10,656	...	Rs. 1,12,264	7,27,316	
1886-87	5,09,665	8,801	...	69,497	23,153	9,437	...	Rs. 1,12,264	7,27,316	
1887-88	5,28,094	13,467	...	70,187	30,295	10,710	...	Rs. 1,23,050	7,76,743	
1888-89	5,16,211	14,108	...	70,350	34,187	9,629	...	Rs. 1,30,910	7,76,265	
1889-90	5,16,211	13,603	...	64,163	34,187	10,288	...	Rs. 1,39,997	7,70,388	
1890-91	5,23,397	12,505	...	67,368	39,178	11,934	...	Rs. 1,35,242	7,87,363	
1891-92	5,23,397	12,505	...	67,368	39,178	10,826	...	Rs. 1,35,367	7,87,363	
1892-93	5,24,735	2,15,233	...	67,374	43,624	10,631	...	Rs. 1,51,183	10,23,503	
1893-94	6,03,306	1,24,480	...	90,412	51,022	10,514	...	Rs. 1,44,754	10,23,503	

Table No. XXIX, — showing REVENUE DERIVED FROM LAND.

1	2	3	FLUCTUATING REVENUE.				8	MISCELLANEOUS REVENUE.			13	
			4	5	6	7		9	10	11		12
YEARS.	Fixed Land Revenue (Khalisa demand).	Fluctuating and miscellaneous Land Revenue Collections.	Revenue of alluvial lands.	Revenue of waste lands brought under assessment.	Water-advantage revenue.	Fluctuating assessment of river lands.	Total fluctuating land revenue.	By enumeration of cattle.	By partitions and leases.	Sale of wood from parks and forests.	Sale of land.	Total miscellaneous land revenue.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Total of 5 years— 1868-69 to 1872-73	21,03,378	1,43,008	626	1,997	4	...	98,697	...	54,888	415	...	74,401
Total of 5 years— 1873-74 to 1877-78	22,72,032	11,147	1,968	1,395	9,827	1,320
1878-79	4,80,206	3,003	297	368	3,478	130
1879-80	4,80,244	4,781	590	225	4,619	...	18	...	2	162
1880-81	4,91,983	12,738	237	910	3,297	...	9,248	...	16	9,501
1881-82	4,93,814	12,301	535	637	4,623	...	7,205	...	6	7,478
1882-83	5,05,787	6,050	216	574	3,025	...	3,154	3,625
1883-84	5,12,733	5,213	120	505	1,188	...	2,882	...	6	4,025
1884-85	5,12,910	5,900	303	669	2,924	...	2,797	...	4	3,576
1885-86	5,13,247	7,171	936	536	3,158	...	2,526	...	6	4,013
1886-87	5,13,733	8,116	196	635	3,516	...	1,666	...	4	4,600
1887-88	5,15,443	13,564	196	692	3,626	...	1,785	...	37	9,638
1888-89	5,16,104	10,321	190	903	7,220	...	483	3,101
1889-90	5,20,120	8,055	343	799	3,880	...	1,118	...	6	4,075
1890-91	5,21,540	9,141	78	847	3,717	...	2,031	5,424
1891-92	5,23,293	4,87,323	277	743	5,650	...	2,355	4,61,073
1892-93	5,29,674	2,15,223	667	534	80,345	...	80,410	7,622
1893-94	6,05,930	1,14,533	587	109	1,006	...	212	536

Table No. XXX, —showing LAND REVENUE ASSIGNMENTS for the AGRICULTURAL YEAR ending RABI 1894.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	DISTRIBUTION OF AREA AND JAMA.	
													In perpetuity free of conditions.	In perpetuity subject to conditions.
TOTAL AREA AND REVENUE ASSIGNED.													Area.	Jama.
DISTRICT.	Village.		Fractional portion of Village.		Plots.		Total.		Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.
	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.
Gujranwála	249,346	1,05,594	42,922	26,487	14,207	11,535	306,475	1,43,616	260,504	1,08,408	25,279	13,290	260,504	1,08,408

14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	NUMBER OF HOLDERS.					
														In perpetuity free of conditions.	In perpetuity subject to conditions.				
DISTRIBUTION OF AREA AND JAMA—concd.													Area.	Jama.					
DISTRICT.	For life or lives.		At pleasure of Government.		For term of Settlement.		Pending orders of Government.		Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.	Area.	Jama.	For life or lives.	At pleasure of Government.	For term of Settlement.	Pending orders of Government.	
	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	
Gujranwála	20,349	21,480	99	164	244	274	214	1,197	613	27	20	...

Table No. XXXI, — showing BALANCES, REMISSIONS and TAKAVI.

YEAR.	BALANCES OF LAND REVENUE IN RUPEES.		Reductions of fixed demand on account of bad seasons, deterioration, &c., in rupees.	Takavi advances in rupees.	REMARKS.
	Fixed revenue.	Fluctuating and miscellaneous revenue.			
1883-84	1,004	97	...	2,650	
1884-85	1,949	405	...	3,675	
1885-86	9,170	757	...	8,940	
1886-87	7,923	1,465	...	10,425	
1887-88	1,388	3,330	...	2,185	
1888-89	910	1,909	...	4,140	
1889-90	1,653	3,309	...	960	
1890-91	1,184	1,217	...	1,880	
1891-92	873	44,331	...	5,490	
1892-93	2,105	19,553	...	68,082	
1893-94	2,024	11,401	...	21,323	

Table No. XXXII, — showing SALES and MORTGAGES of LAND.

1	2	3			4	5	6	7			8	9	10	11			12	13
		SALES.						MORTGAGES.						REDEMPTION OF MORTGAGES.				
YEAR.	Number of cases.	Area in Acres.		Price. Rs.	Number of cases.	Area in Acres.		Mortgage money. Rs.	Number of cases.	Area in Acres.		Consideration money. Rs.						
		Total.	Cultivated.			Total.	Cultivated.			Total.	Cultivated.							
1885-86	294	5,014	3,998	80,151	548	7,540	5,771	97,266	67	1,433	1,078	11,251						
1886-87	445	7,377	4,810	94,946	1,063	13,274	11,016	1,70,024	136	2,227	2,088	20,187						
1887-88	772	16,248	13,089	1,64,088	1,410	22,874	16,269	2,35,452	305	7,616	6,873	51,602						
1888-89	1,048	13,702	9,619	2,33,439	2,270	21,558	18,714	3,69,265	512	7,860	7,120	85,264						
1889-90	444	5,667	4,266	1,31,949	821	8,270	7,343	1,64,010	309	4,654	3,879	54,437						
1890-91	880	9,859	7,426	2,11,004	1,479	14,069	11,699	2,37,842	569	6,602	5,549	96,239						
1891-92	1,066	13,452	7,838	2,34,414	1,834	26,722	15,601	2,56,321	684	12,507	7,764	1,29,412						
1892-93	718	12,686	6,759	1,83,238	598	10,111	6,793	1,19,705	238	8,358	5,362	48,395						
1893-94	536	7,660	4,661	2,18,903	1,129	8,810	7,156	2,64,170	576	5,343	5,041	1,02,666						
Total	6,203	91,665	62,466	15,52,122	11,152	133,228	100,362	19,14,055	6,396	56,595	44,774	5,99,453						

OPERATIONS OF THE REGISTRATION DEPARTMENT.

YEAR.	INCOME FROM SALE OF STAMPS.				Number of deeds registered.					Value of property effected in Rupees.			
	Receipts in Rupees.		Net income in Rupees.		Touching immovable property.	Touching movable property.	Money obligations.	Total of all kinds.	Immovable property.	Movable property.	Money obligations.	Total value of all kinds.	
	Judicial.	Non-judicial.	Judicial.	Non-judicial.									
1877-78	61,992	22,751	61,087	22,011	1,480	164	108	1,842	3,27,362	9,502	62,268	3,99,162	
1878-79	56,769	26,683	50,656	25,603	1,252	129	73	1,454	3,19,605	1,62,293	31,955	5,13,553	
1879-80	61,742	31,780	53,945	30,641	1,233	30	55	1,404	3,45,385	627	28,107	3,79,869	
1880-81	67,304	35,851	59,152	34,308	1,227	16	42	1,333	3,98,700	2,509	18,880	4,20,179	
1881-82	71,272	39,758	62,776	32,362	1,064	12	29	1,215	3,00,099	2,700	24,401	3,26,000	
1882-83	71,464	37,103	63,209	35,887	1,066	91	16	1,173	4,05,669	2,391	10,345	4,18,465	
1883-84	80,513	36,607	72,284	34,791	1,232	102	8	1,342	4,07,652	940	4,362	5,02,951	
1884-85	70,592	41,672	62,642	39,586	1,447	126	7	1,680	5,27,405	4,569	3,416	5,35,780	
1885-86	70,580	38,261	61,746	36,457	1,263	120	8	1,391	5,04,016	1,260	3,279	5,08,555	
1886-87	82,368	42,902	73,781	40,912	1,476	105	7	1,688	6,43,628	5,697	1,645	6,50,970	
1887-88	86,281	45,740	83,768	43,303	1,764	93	14	1,871	8,06,032	1,080	4,577	8,10,639	
1888-89	86,282	43,715	84,391	41,605	1,772	83	15	1,870	7,88,148	1,040	11,102	8,02,290	
1889-90	91,076	44,166	89,610	41,875	2,009	107	19	2,125	8,60,515	2,151	10,012	8,62,681	
1890-91	99,037	53,430	97,155	50,764	3,117	151	27	3,257	13,05,684	12,050	19,873	13,21,007	
1891-92	1,00,026	52,518	98,130	50,505	6,070	177	15	6,262	17,30,935	4,907	17,083	17,57,989	
1892-93	1,04,004	40,730	1,01,131	38,732	3,975	218	55	4,248	11,44,628	29,001	29,362	11,94,381	

Table No. XXXIIIA, — showing REGISTRATION.

1	Number of Decds registered.																		
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10										
	1891-92.																		
	Compul- sory.	Optional.	Total.	1892-93.															
	Compul- sory.	Optional.	Total.	Compul- sory.	Optional.	Total.	Compul- sory.	Optional.	Total.	1893-94.									
	Compul- sory.	Optional.	Total.	Compul- sory.	Optional.	Total.	Compul- sory.	Optional.	Total.	Compul- sory.	Optional.	Total.	Compul- sory.	Optional.	Total.				
Registrar, Gujranwála ...	3	1	4	17	...	17	5	1	6				
Sub-Registrar, Gujranwála ...	1,096	289	1,385	1,524	1,096	2,620	923	628	1,551				
Do. do. Tahsil ...	6	13	82	4	1	5	34	20	54				
Do. Wazirabad ...	969	117	1,086	1,287	812	2,099	872	701	1,573				
Do. do. Tahsil ...	4	3	7	5	...	5	3	2	5				
Do. Hafizabad ...	471	76	547	753	490	1,243	487	286	673				
Do. do. Tahsil ...	6	...	6	58	23	81	88	23	61				
Do. Khángah Degrán	42	10	52				
Total ...	2,618	499	3,117	3,648	2,422	6,070	2,354	1,621	3,975				

Table No. XXXIV, — showing INCOME TAX COLLECTIONS.

YEAR.	INCOME-TAX COLLECTIONS.										Total number of assesses.	Total income-tax.
	Part I.		Part II.		Part III.		Part IV.		9	10		
	Number of assesses.	Amount of tax.	Number of assesses.	Amount of tax.	Number of assesses.	Amount of tax.	Number of assesses.	Amount of tax.				
1886-87	14	278	878	16,284	892	16,557	
1887-88	11	157	932	16,776	943	16,983	
1888-89	22	405	985	17,071	1,007	17,476	
1889-90	25	428	972	17,506	997	17,984	
1890-91	23	521	1,148	22,786	1,171	23,307	
1891-92	25	526	1,129	23,227	1,154	23,753	
1892-93	23	524	1,203	26,424	1,226	26,948	
1893-94	26	711	1,292	28,588	1,318	29,299	

Table No. XXXV, —showing EXCISE STATISTICS.

1 YEAR.	2 Number of central distilleries.			3 FERMENTED LIQUORS.				4 INTOXICATING DRUGS.					5 EXCISE REVENUE FROM		
	Number of central distilleries.			6 Number of retail shops.		7 Consumption in gallons.		8 Consumption in maunds.					13 Fermented liquors and spirits.	14 Drugs.	15 Total.
				9 Country spirits.		10 European liquors.		11 Rum.		12 Country spirits.		13 Number of retail licenses.			
	14 Optium.		15 Other drugs.		16 Opium.		17 Charas.		18 Bhang.		19 Other drugs.				
Average of 1877-8 to 1881-82 ...	3	34	5	125	3,005	19	9	33	4	240	..	16,883	8,256	25,239	
1888-89 ...	1	6	4	96	6,903	66	66	30	4	151	..	39,220	11,085	44,605	
1889-90 ...	1	67	4	90	7,121	66	66	33	13	127	..	34,163	10,388	44,451	
1890-01 ...	1	67	4	251	7,673	67	67	35	8	131	..	39,178	11,684	51,112	
1891-02 ...	1	54	4	414	8,401	66	66	36	5	130	..	42,624	10,626	53,450	
1892-93 ...	1	57	4	207	18,656	66	66	36	9	89	..	43,944	10,652	51,506	
1893-94 ...	1	49	3	677	180	67	67	35	8	70	..	50,114	9,543	59,657	

Table No. XXXVI,—showing DISTRICT FUNDS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
YEAR.	Annual income in rupees.			Annual expenditure in rupees.						
	Provincial rates.	Miscellaneous.	Total income.	Establishment.	District post and arboriculture.	Education.	Medical.	Miscellaneous.	Public Works.	Total expenditure.
1874-75	36,118	3,354	4,182	9,202	384	3,187	15,809	36,118
1875-76	78,216	2,579	830	13,417	3,102	120	50,400	70,646
1876-77	39,116	3,396	600	11,024	5,028	120	16,634	36,602
1877-78	42,304	3,404	...	13,542	4,040	520	19,560	41,366
1878-79	38,773	3,305	620	12,910	4,350	84	11,141	32,440
1879-80	55,981	3,609	59,590	3,327	620	13,277	4,726	84	13,622	35,656
1880-81	55,923	3,900	59,823	3,253	620	13,882	5,020	141	13,682	36,598
1881-82	56,458	7,878	64,336	3,208	1,844	12,530	5,551	569	18,693	42,395
1883-84	56,825	4,608	61,433	3,148	880	13,128	7,612	1,002	15,606	40,866
1884-85	56,201	2,948	59,239	3,053	1,879	13,858	7,589	605	19,406	46,390
1885-86	52,241	9,142	61,383	4,034	2,074	14,992	9,153	684	17,220	48,157
1886-87	53,427	6,524	59,951	3,472	5,404	16,415	8,737	9,505	14,297	57,830
1887-88	52,060	8,089	61,049	1,617	6,339	17,149	8,405	3,468	17,593	54,481
1888-89	52,557	8,313	60,870	3,200	3,104	17,018	8,366	2,629	30,072	64,389
1889-90	53,280	10,653	63,933	2,870	2,322	17,385	7,376	2,664	8,190	40,807
1890-91	53,977	14,742	68,719	3,202	2,371	18,349	7,733	3,253	17,380	52,288
1891-92	53,893	10,954	64,847	3,889	3,054	20,369	8,826	3,447	24,255	63,840
1892-93	52,500	11,916	64,416	3,578	5,019	21,210	9,659	12,764	28,270	80,500
1893-94	67,398	11,989	79,387	3,580	5,694	22,129	9,955	20,350	15,729	77,487

Table No. XXXVIII.—showing the WORKING of the DISPENSARIES of the GUJRANWALA DISTRICT for the YEARS 1888 to 1894.

1	2	NUMBER OF PATIENTS TREATED.												
		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Name of Dispensary.	Class of Dispensary.	Men.						Women.						Total
		1888.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1888.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	
Gujranwala	1st class	5,701	11,420	14,136	12,767	14,236	10,830	5,098	8,973	9,448	8,221	8,879	6,096	
Wazirabad	2nd class	4,717	9,884	10,652	9,686	9,180	8,864	2,798	4,237	5,143	4,774	4,675	3,691	
Rámnagar	3rd class	3,889	4,868	5,388	5,703	4,808	5,074	2,433	2,335	2,414	2,581	2,238	2,384	
Háftabad	Do.	3,893	4,407	4,024	4,606	5,123	5,043	1,408	1,729	1,778	1,573	1,610	1,752	
Jhabbar	Do.	2,180	2,873	3,683	4,115	3,600	2,869	895	981	1,282	1,580	1,640	1,243	
Fináí Bhattián	Do.	3,065	2,944	3,446	3,689	3,381	3,784	1,244	1,071	1,354	1,303	1,177	1,461	
Butála	Do.	...	413	4,140	4,318	3,782	4,814	...	172	1,566	1,564	1,411	1,616	
Gujranwála City Branch	Do.	2,951	10,421	1,350	4,295	
Akálgarh	Do.	5,023	5,022	2,097	2,227	
Shahkot	Do.	6,273	7,268	1,295	1,447	
Sheikhupúra	Do.	564	152	
Khángah Dográn	Do.	2,404	639	
Eminebad	Do.	1,974	779	
Total	23,445	29,458	44,840	44,854	58,566	75,091	13,801	16,014	22,985	21,605	20,381	28,062	

Table No. XXXVIII,—showing the WORKING of the DISPENSARIES of the GUJRWANWALA DISTRICT for the YEARS 1888 to 1894—continued.

		NUMBER OF PATIENTS TREATED—continued.													
		17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
Name of Dispensary.	Class of Dispensary.	Total Patients.													
		1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.
Gujranwala	1st class	6,618	7,616	10,884	11,265	9,906	11,778	10,136	17,417	19,801	31,296	34,840	30,064	84,693	39,002
Wazirabad	2nd class	3,404	5,470	6,255	6,906	5,401	5,628	4,940	10,919	19,062	20,850	22,191	19,951	19,492	17,235
Rannegar	3rd class	2,818	2,577	2,323	2,816	3,138	2,564	3,144	9,130	9,183	9,508	10,618	11,422	9,610	10,602
Hafizabad	Do.	1,640	1,775	1,695	1,682	1,970	1,965	2,420	6,986	7,911	7,984	7,484	8,140	8,698	9,215
Jhabbar	Do.	1,052	1,044	1,787	1,222	1,794	1,512	1,261	4,127	4,898	7,364	6,167	7,498	6,952	5,873
Pindi Bhattian	Do.	1,917	1,443	1,362	1,463	1,634	1,105	1,667	6,226	5,458	5,364	6,262	4,406	5,723	6,912
Butala	Do.	170	1,184	1,251	1,321	1,898	755	6,800	7,133	6,514	8,528
Gujranwala City Branch	Do.	2,220	8,154	6,430	22,870
Akalgargh	Do.	2,893	3,157	10,013	11,006
Shabko	Do.	692	1,188	8,460	9,873
Sheikhupura	Do.	159	875
Khangah Dogran	Do.	464	3,467
Eminabad	Do.	678	3,431
Total	..	17,449	19,691	24,476	26,627	25,174	31,038	39,236	53,755	65,403	83,111	94,461	91,633	116,785	142,989

Table No. XXXVIII,—showing the WORKING of the DISPENSARIES of the GUJRANWALA DISTRICT for the YEARS 1886 to 1894—concluded.

Name of Dispensary.	Class of Dispensary.	NUMBER OF PATIENTS TREATED—concluded.													
		In-door Patients.						Expenditure in rupees.							
		1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.
Gujranwala	1st class	327	354	612	540	530	491	442	3,470	4,037	5,220	4,169	7,723	5,710	4,960
Wazirabad	2nd class	101	124	297	205	263	161	223	1,625	2,088	2,112	2,101	2,006	2,482	2,521
Ramnagar	3rd class	66	60	71	51	42	43	65	1,307	1,563	1,583	1,403	1,042	1,547	1,330
Hafizabad	Do.	51	61	51	70	111	108	100	1,742	1,445	1,061	1,178	1,155	1,503	1,108
Jhabbar	Do.	50	63	62	62	57	66	30	936	1,012	867	956	747	1,326	818
Pindi Bhattian	Do.	26	24	27	55	56	46	31	1,005	1,006	730	1,109	1,061	1,539	1,340
Budala	Do.	19	33	31	24	462	587	518	1,040	952
Gujranwala City Branch	Do.	735	911
Akálgarh	Do.	510	788
Shahkot	Do.	1,226	1,625
Sheikhpura	Do.	10	251
Khangah Dogran	Do.	1,320
Emnabad	Do.	684
Total	630	681	1,069	1,011	1,692	963	934	10,655	11,151	12,085	11,593	14,272	17,708	18,620

Table No. XXXIX,—showing CIVIL and REVENUE LITIGATION.

YEAR.	Number of civil suits concerning					Value in rupees of suits concerning			Number of revenue cases.
	2	3	4	5	6	7		8	
						Land and revenue and other matters.	Total.		
1878	8,476	68	663	9,197	29,145	4,11,060	4,40,205	7,131	
1879	8,529	97	750	9,376	31,073	6,01,351	6,33,024	7,130	
1880	8,819	133	831	9,816	42,705	3,84,247	4,27,012	7,068	
1881	8,740	136	854	9,730	89,462	4,81,778	5,71,240	6,697	
1882	9,315	174	973	10,462	50,699	4,69,949	5,10,648	6,846	
1883	9,943	...	1,105	11,048	1,16,487	5,70,095	6,86,582	2,003	
1884	9,302	...	1,215	10,607	1,77,668	6,67,146	8,41,614	1,834	
1885	9,834	...	1,087	10,921	95,501	41,34,644	42,30,145	4,102	
1886	11,857	...	1,132	12,989	1,14,744	12,67,623	13,82,367	3,117	
1887	10,308	...	1,524	11,832	2,76,458	7,25,954	10,02,412	3,920	
1888	11,538	...	1,352	12,870	2,03,592	3,97,836	6,01,428	4,783	
1889	11,234	...	1,145	12,379	1,44,893	7,30,265	8,74,158	4,080	

DETAILS.	1888.		1889.		1890.		1891.		1892.		1893.		1894.	
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Brought to trial	6,247	4,703	4,900	5,122	6,091	5,519	6,248							
Discharged	2,821	2,376	2,729	2,539	3,079	2,601	2,787							
Acquitted	572	593	585	790	931	890	1,161							
Convicted	2,739	1,654	1,431	1,679	2,087	1,809	2,051							
Committed or referred	68	85	152	73	57	67	92							
Summons cases (regular)	1,297	1,246	1,353	1,216	1,390	1,251	1,774							
" (summary)	1,101	85	51	60	87	61	277							
Warrant cases (regular)	1,068	978	889	904	1,278	1,205	1,447							
" (summary)	50	9	3	7	3	6	7							
Total cases disposed of	2,506	2,318	2,296	2,187	2,758	2,523	3,505							
Death	6	8	3	4	4	3	3							
Transportation for a term	14	3	10	4	14	1	1							
Penal servitude	8	...	4							
Fine under Rs. 10	1,405	991	870	912	1,106	798	1,091							
" 10 to 50 rupees	324	372	264	285	261	220	343							
" 50 to 100 "	5	29	7	10	16	14	29							
" 100 to 500 "	5	7	3	1	2	11	9							
" 500 to 1,000 "	...	1							
Over 1,000 rupees							
Imprisonment under 6 months	499	434	354	314	497	418	544							
" 6 months to 2 years	206	317	242	318	206	266	244							
" over 2 years	116	84	13	5	6	9	19							
Whipping	27	43	77	85	55	99	71							
Find sureties of the peace	6	21	10	62	58	104	103							
Recognizance to keep the peace	741	7	17	7	29	216	...							
Give sureties for good behaviour	...	6	156	62	156							

Number of persons sentenced to

Table No. XLI.—showing POLICE INQUIRIES.

1	NATURE OF OFFENCE.	NUMBER OF CASES INQUIRED INTO										NUMBER OF PERSONS ARRESTED OR SUMMONED.										NUMBER OF PERSONS CONVICTED.									
		1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.		
		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	
...	Rioting or unlawful assembly ...	8	2	6	11	15	9	5	88	14	28	82	97	82	47	64	25	25	55	74	26	35		
...	Murder and attempts to murder ...	7	7	15	10	6	6	6	9	10	14	13	6	8	9	8	10	9	3	4	4	5		
...	Total serious offences against the person ...	84	84	82	85	75	113	74	118	80	96	113	106	132	96	83	77	61	77	70	69	68		
...	Abduction of married women ...	3	4	9	5	6	4	7	9	11	4	6	7	9		
...	Total serious offences against property ...	332	325	250	313	344	414	339	193	193	142	293	237	222	170	128	143	107	142	154	109	131		
...	Total minor offences against the person ...	3	1	3	3	3	3	70	2	4	4	2	5	128	5	10	8	9	17	9	8	2		
...	Cattle theft ...	201	150	123	131	174	375	218	180	140	125	152	155	306	172	170	98	70	87	88	143	136		
...	Total minor offences against property ...	680	579	469	551	540	978	301	628	554	478	514	600	11,502	337	477	303	307	347	411	453	260		
...	Total cognizable offences ...	1,119	939	817	977	1,008	2,359	2,142	1,064	884	750	923	1,058	2,542	1,489	775	695	578	646	726	1,236	1,167		
...	Rioting unlawful assembly, affray	3	1	4	4	1	2	29	9	3	8	14	2	4	16	4	4	6	13	2	4		
...	Offences relating to marriage ...	6	6	78	84	192	257	370	125	107	103	99	245	191	268	8	4	9	8	15	15	30		
...	Total non-cognizable offences ...	283	310	1,116	1,089	1,787	3,317	4,136	3,169	2,960	2,092	3,028	4,044	4,455	9,552	641	641	345	564	587	460	686		
...	Grand Total of offences ...	1,402	1,309	1,933	2,066	2,795	5,796	6,278	4,263	3,514	3,451	3,956	5,102	9,097	8,041	1,416	1,306	923	1,210	1,313	1,693	1,853		

Table No. XLII,--showing CONVICTS in JAIL, GUJRANWALA.

1	2		3		4		5		6			7			8			9			10			11			12			13			14			15			16			17			18			19			20			21			22			23			24			25			26		
	NUMBER IN GAOL AT BEGINNING OF THE YEAR.		NUMBER IN-PRISONED DURING THE YEAR.		RELIGION OF CONVICTS.			PREVIOUS OCCUPATION OF MALE CONVICTS.			LENGTH OF SENTENCE OF CONVICTS.						PREVIOUSLY CONVICTED.			PECUNIARY RESULTS.																																																			
YEAR.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Musalman.	Hindu.	Buddhist and Jain.	Official.	Professional.	Service.	Agricultural.	Commercial.	Industrial.	Under six months.	Six months to one year.	One year to two years.	Two years to five years.	Five years to ten years.	Over 10 years and trans-portion.	Death.	Once.	Twice.	More than twice.	Cost of maintenance.	Rs. a. p.	Profits of convict labor.																																													
1888	308	1	784	27	548	218	...	18	1	...	440	45	235	193	74	80	10	...	9	5	106	31	10	20,963	1,431	10	0																																										
1889	307	1	817	40	602	254	...	5	1	78	428	43	262	229	78	86	14	...	1	7	98	29	10	20,209	3,840	12	0																																										
1890	447	6	637	24	386	274	...	6	316	54	261	239	48	65	15	...	11	1	67	28	7	19,706	3,126	14	0																																										
1891	358	7	640	27	388	278	...	13	...	21	352	...	165	88	84	15	...	3	2	10	54	24	21,261	3,116	0	0																																											
1892	345	7	742	24	525	241	...	13	...	5	344	23	357	177	123	63	18	7	5	2	45	19	21,899	3,298	0	0																																											
1893	391	10	903	35	617	320	...	11	...	33	607	44	377	369	96	85	7	...	1	202	39	14	20,764	5,452	0	0																																											
1894	384	7	829	18	518	329	...	9	538	54	203	64	82	10	5	...	8	101	27	16	8,044	4,655	0	0																																											

Table No. XLIII, —showing the POPULATION of TOWNS.

1	2	3		4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
		TOTAL POPULATION.									
	Town.	1881.	1891.	Hindus.	Sikhs.	Jains.	Mussalmáns.	Christians.	Other religions.	Number of occupied houses.	Persons per 100 occupied houses.
Tahsil.	Gujránwála ...	22,884	26,785	9,909	2,020	522	14,040	284	...	4,313	
	Eminabad ...	5,880	5,841	1,574	102	...	4,157	8	...	914	
	Kila Didár Singh	2,822	2,843	906	213	52	1,556	116	...	509	
Wazirabad ...	Wazirabad ...	16,462	15,786	4,088	621	...	11,028	49	...	3,069	
	Rámnegar ..	6,880	6,592	1,911	238	92	4,346	5	...	1,379	
	Akálgarh ...	4,312	4,262	1,743	205	2	2,312	372	

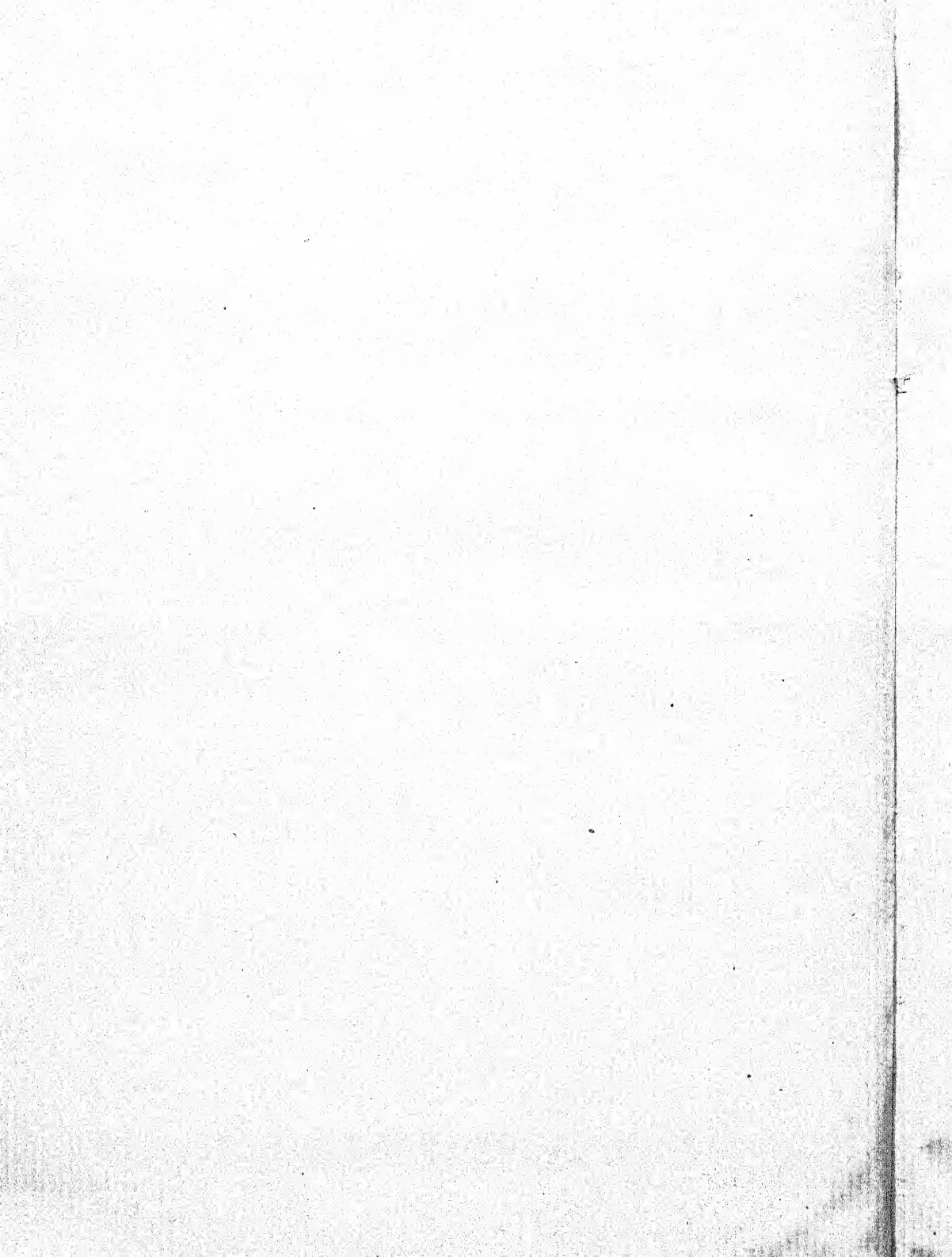
Table No. XLIV, — showing BIRTHS and DEATHS for TOWNS.

1	2	3	Total births registered during the year.								Total deaths registered during the year.											
			1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.			
Town.	SEX.	Total population 1901.																				
			13,600	12,103	8,282	7,504	2,883	2,958	1,498	1,345	2,151	2,111	3,347	3,245	1,918	1,756						
Gujranwala ...	Males	508	488	517	423	611	403	586	344	363	714	341	518	435	390						
	Females	457	465	470	357	532	420	557	316	339	606	298	506	324	350						
Wazirabad ...	Males	201	360	333	287	400	283	346	251	305	698	311	434	288	336						
	Females	220	255	206	290	320	224	279	217	295	680	272	303	250	297						
Eminabad ...	Males	82	69	70	72	144	90	159	35	45	247	78	105	112	88						
	Females	55	52	63	74	120	81	111	44	41	248	65	104	82	86						
Kila Didar Singh ...	Males	73	40	37	36	74	58	83	37	57	139	54	53	20	38						
	Females	60	42	42	39	73	45	75	36	48	113	43	51	36	49						
Akalgarh ...	Males	103	103	80	76	84	40	60	73	147	104	61	100	44	49						
	Females	87	92	67	72	55	52	69	75	130	154	69	95	39	40						
Rāmnagar ...	Males	138	154	91	130	149	117	181	104	209	232	171	207	135	132						
	Females	135	136	124	97	137	121	151	108	188	243	118	220	118	133						
Pindi Bhatian ...	Males	103	54	20	18	Abolished.															
	Females	66	58	18	Abolished.																

Table No. XLV, — showing MUNICIPAL INCOME.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
NAME OF MUNICIPALITY.	Gujranwala.	Wazirabad.	Rannagar.	Akshgarh.	Emnabad.*	Pindi Bhatian.*	Hahzabad.*	Jalapur.*	Sodra.*	Kila Didar Singh.
Class of Municipality	II.	III.	III.	III.	III.	III.	III.	III.	III.	III.
1880-81	30,152	16,730	4,726	1,605	2,365	1,237	820	727	980	1,655
1888-89	58,653	19,209	5,624	2,827	2,545	1,418	2,458
1889-90	57,646	19,625	5,453	2,140	2,985	1,174	1,969
1890-91	50,160	17,804	5,856	2,543	2,839	1,938
1891-92	62,493	19,084	6,761	2,710	3,600	3,051
1892-93	64,478	19,444	5,727	2,540	3,554	2,994
1893-94	63,107	18,966	6,277	2,958	3,507	2,155

*Now abolished Municipalities.



DISTRICT.

GUJRAN

Gujránwála	*
Lohiánwála	**
Talwandi	ation	†
Siranwáli	it-post	††
Ghakkhar	ce	‡
Aujla	... Station	‡‡
Kot Khizri	ry	§
Abuwála	se	§§
Wazírabad	
Kalaski	... §ungalow...	
Saroke	.. ngalow	+
Rámnagar	ouse	+
Akálgarh	... und	+
Vanike	...									
Jalálpur	...									
Kila Didár Si										
Nokhar	...									
Baddoke	...									
Dera Dundu I										
Háfizabad										
Matteke	...									
Pindi Bhattiá										
Sukheke	...									
Marh	...									
Khángah Dog										
Shamir	...									
Manánwála										
Chuharkána										
Sheikhupura	†, §.									
Jhabbar	...									
Naushahr	ahra ††, †, ††, †, †.									
Maju Chak	aju Chak †.									
Sáhdoki	... Sahdoki ††, .									
Manhes	... 2 Manhes.									
Kámoke	... 5 3 Kámoke †, ††, ††, ††, ††, ††.									
Khoth	... 7 5 2 Khoth.									
Dhillanwáli	... 9 7 4 2 Dhillanwáli.									
Atáwa	... 12 10 7 5 3 Atáwa.									
Kangniwála	... 15 13 10 8 6 3 Kangniwála.									
Eminabad	... 10 8 5 3 3 4 7 Eminabad †, †, , †, §.									
Nangal Dunna	... 9 11 11 13 14 15 18 11 1/2 Nangal Dunna									
Butála	... 25 23 20 22 21 18 15 21 31 Butála †, §.									

[Punjab Gazetteer, Gujranwála District.]